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The NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Association Notes and Editorial Comments

A Challenge to Education

The Vision of the Future

International Understanding

An Appraisal of the Status of Education

Hoover Commission Recommendations

Life Adjustment Education

High School-College Relations

Induction of New Teachers into Service

Fifty-sixth Annual Meeting of the Association,
Palmer House, Chicago, March 27-31, 1951

Theme: "Education for the Improvement of Human Relationships"

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

*The Official Organ of the North Central Association of Colleges
and Secondary Schools*

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Volume XXV

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OCTOBER 1950

Number 2

ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENTS

HISTORY REPEATS: THE ASSOCIATION IN WARTIME AGAIN

ONCE more the North Central Association faces an emergency: education for a nation girding for safety against war. Just how the Korean situation, for instance, fits into the long-range military plans of the foreign power that fomented it is, of course, obscure. But certain it is, our country is irrevocably committed to face them come what may. So, after only five short years educational institutions must gird themselves again for the task of preserving democratic values in a world threatened by a political theory gone mad. Once more the Association faces the obligation of helping them to do so as only the Association can. But this time there need be no fumbling because it has the experiences of two world wars to fall back upon. As it profited in World War II from its mistakes in World War I, plans which proved to be so effective from 1941 to 1945 and thereafter apparently need only to be brought up to date to cover the basic problems that the schools are bound to encounter now.

What were some of the war-related problems that had to be handled on an Association-wide basis? Credit for military experience was one of them. Steps were effectively taken to prevent the incautious blanketing-in of large blocks of credit of this sort, and a precedent was thereby established that should work well in the present emergency. The evaluation of subjects provided by

the Armed Forces Institute was another. The manual prepared for this purpose and universally distributed to schools and colleges under the joint sponsorship of the Association brought order out of an essentially chaotic situation. If a similar educational plan for the armed services should be set up for the years immediately ahead, the Association could invoke an identical evaluational service for its members. Another problem of great magnitude was the draining of school personnel into the armed services and into essential war production. Unless the selective service regulations be revised, school personnel will not be deferred and the schools will again face a critical shortage of teachers. This, too, will be an old story to the Association.

The guidance of youth in wartime was not the least of the special services that the schools provided in World War II, although guidance then was clearly in its infancy, as it is now understood and applied. The Association has since completed a major study of guidance among its members which will prove invaluable in the present crisis.

Curriculum studies are continually being made under the aegis of the Association. Extreme modifications were made as a logical consequence of the demands of war; thus, to do so again would not be new. As much can be said for organized war-related student and teacher activities.

The suspension of building construction from 1941 to 1945 with subsequent

overcrowding of existing facilities created a situation from which the schools have not yet recovered. Even if war had not come, this problem would have been cumulative what with increasing numbers of children of school age. Through the years, the Association has not expected the impossible in this regard, and can apply its experience effectively as critical shortages in capital materials accrue in the months ahead.

But why go on? In so far as the demands of war upon the educational resources of the country will be repeated, the Association will be on familiar ground. Even new demands will probably not be wholly strange. The Association is a great clearing house of ideas and in war-imposed emergencies it knows how to go about the task of securing information and applying it in a practical way. This is not strange since, in essence, it operates a twenty-state "laboratory" whose resourcefulness is restricted only by the limits of the ingenuity of its members.

HARLAN C. KOCH

MAKING THE WORK OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION CLEARER TO ITS CONSTITUENCY

IN 1935, *Pertinent Facts*, a little handbook full of helpful information about the North Central Association, was published. Thousands of copies were distributed in response to inquiries about the character and the practices of the Association. In style, it was of envelope size and was set up in question-and-answer form. It filled such a need for a simple yet comprehensive medium of information that a second publication comparable to it is now being prepared. A committee composed of the executive secretary of the Association, the secretaries of the three Commissions, and the editor of the

QUARTERLY as chairman, is in charge of the project.

Although the basic structure of the Association has not changed since *Pertinent Facts* was published, much has happened functionally which has outmoded the information that it carried. For instance, in 1942, the Commission on Curricula of Secondary Schools and Institutions of Higher Education gave way to the Commission on Research and Service which not only discharges the functions of its predecessor but is also charged with the primary responsibility of initiating, planning, and carrying forward studies in the fields of education and institutional research and service pertaining to universities, colleges, and secondary schools.

Then, too, the Commission on Secondary Schools has created an administrative committee which studies policies and procedures of that commission and further facilitates the work of that division of the Association by discharging *ad interim* responsibilities of one sort or another.

Furthermore, the service aspect of the relation of the Association to its member schools and colleges has become clearer during the past fifteen years. Whereas formerly the published standards of accreditation were rigidly enforced, they no longer constitute the sole basis of continued membership in the Association; instead, they provide points of reference for studying ways and means of further improving the educational effectiveness of these institutions.

All of these things and, of course, many more, the proposed handbook hopes to make clear. As yet, no publication date has been set. The attention of the handbook committee has been devoted to such matters as the character of materials to be collected, the

form in which the new publication will appear, and so on through the long list of problems that the preparation of even such a small bulletin always entails. But in due course it will appear. In the meantime, the committee hopes that its efforts will reveal as clear a picture of the Association and its work as a publication of this character can present. It is expected that school officials will find it especially helpful with board members and citizens when matters pertaining to the North Central Association are under discussion, on the one hand, and, on the other, that it will lead to a clearer understanding of the work of the Association by all others who may be interested in it.

HARLAN C. KOCH

REVISED *Evaluative Criteria* NOW
AVAILABLE

THE Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards was organized in 1933 by the six regional accrediting associations in the United States, because of their growing dissatisfaction with the methods which had long been in use for determining whether a school merited accreditation. It was financed by a grant from the General Education Board and contributions from the six regional accrediting associations. A Committee of Twenty-One representing the regional associations, with its Executive Committee of nine and its Administrative Committee of three, was in charge of the Study; these committees have never disbanded. To the Study were devoted six years of intensive research, accompanied by exhaustive experimental work in more than two hundred secondary schools of all sizes and types throughout the country, and richly supplemented by the help and advice, freely given, of leading secondary school men all over the United States. The result in 1940

was the publication of a set of new instruments valuable not only for accrediting secondary schools, but even more important for stimulating effectively the enthusiasm of school staffs for continuous improvement of their own schools.

Revision of the Evaluative Criteria was undertaken in 1948 to incorporate the experience of ten years' wide use of the materials and to bring them up-to-date. Extensive contributions to the revision were made by selected juries including representatives from schools of different size, public and independent schools, teachers colleges, schools of education, state and federal departments of education, and professional educational organizations. The materials published in 1940 were modified extensively and were published as *Evaluative Criteria*, 1950 edition, in May, 1950.

As announced in the list of publications of the Association at the close of this issue, orders may be sent to the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, N. W., Washington, D. C.

NORTH CENTRAL AREA MEETINGS
IN MICHIGAN

THE following news item was received from Lawrence E. Vredevoe, Chairman of the Michigan State Committee:

Area meetings for representatives of North Central Association schools and for schools interested in becoming members of the Association will be held throughout the state this Fall.

The first such meeting will be held in the Upper Peninsula on Thursday, Oct. 5, the location to be announced later. The Grand Rapids meeting will be held Oct. 20. Dates for succeeding meetings have not been determined but they will follow the meeting of North Central state chairmen on Oct. 9 and

10. The annual state meeting is scheduled for Nov. 27 in the Pantlind Hotel in Grand Rapids.

This year Association schools are being urged to participate in the voluntary self-study program which in 1950-51 will be based on Criterion 2, sections B, C, and D. This covers the areas of extra-curricular activities for students, library service, and guidance service. The report form for these sections has been simplified this year.

Although participation in this study of criteria is voluntary, most of the Michigan member schools have used the studies during the past two years and found them helpful in improving their own programs.

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I. MIDPOINT: A CHALLENGE TO EDUCATION¹

HEROLD C. HUNT

General Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois

LET ME suggest at the outset as I bid you a delayed but no less sincere and hearty welcome to Chicago where this week you have convened in annual session that the topic, graciously assigned me: "Midpoint—A Challenge to Education" complementing the over-all morning theme "Education at the Mid-Century: The Vision of the Future" appeals to me tremendously. Surely it is most timely for the year 1950 whether the beginning of the second half of the twentieth century or the last year of the first half of the century is midpoint in the century. Midpoint presents a strategic opportunity for both a backward and a forward look. By way of a backward glance over the past fifty years Professor Arthur M. Schlesinger, noted Harvard historian and distinguished Pulitzer prize-winner, has recently listed the ten historical events of 1900-1950 which have had the greatest effect in shaping the history of the world. May I remind you of Schlesinger's nominations for the half-century hall of fame? He suggests first the emergence of the United States as one of the two dominant world powers today as the most "world shaking" event of the first half of the twentieth century and then in chronological order lists World War I; the League of Nations; the political emancipation of women; the depression of the thirties; World War II; the practicability of atomic energy; the abandonment of colonial imperialism on the part of the major nations of the world; the formation of the United Nations and

finally the emergence of Russia as the second dominant world power.

An interesting and significant list, I take issue with it chiefly because of its omissions. Lacking is any recognition, in adequate measure at least, of the tremendous upsurge of scientific invention and discovery so peculiarly characteristic of the past half century which has witnessed the economic and social impact of the automobile, the telephone, the airplane, radio, television, the diesel engine, the wonder drugs of science—to list but a few.

Back in 1900, for example, there were but 10,000 automobiles and trucks in operation in the entire United States—today there are more than 41,000,000. At the beginning of the century the telephone was in its infancy—there were then but 1,350,000 phones as compared with more than 40,000,000 today. Radio was unknown in 1900—today, fifty years later, there are more than 83,000,000 sets in use in the United States. Television, new in the communications area, has sold within the past three years almost 4,000,000 sets. During these past fifty years we have become air minded and the pioneering efforts of the Wright brothers was translated last year alone in nine billion passenger miles flown by Americans!

Missing, too, in the Schlesinger list is any reference to the recognition of the importance of the individual, the supreme value and worth of human personality, the dignity of man. In my opinion, this is by far the outstanding characteristic of the past fifty years, finding reflection in both achievements and trends of significant interest and concern to the educator.

¹ Delivered before the Second General Session of the Association in Chicago, March 24, 1950. The first of two addresses on the theme, "Education at the Mid-Century: The Vision of the Future."

Let me be more specific. In 1900 the work-a-day was well established at sixty hours; our national income was at 14 billion, 550 million dollars; our high school enrollment stood at six hundred thousand and in our colleges and universities two hundred and forty thousand young men and women were enrolled. Let's look at the picture in 1950!—the work-a-day is now forty hours; our national income is in excess of two hundred forty billion dollars; high school enrollments last September were estimated at six and a half million while our colleges and universities enrolled approximately two and a half million. In fifty years while the population of the United States was but doubling itself—from seventy-five million to one hundred and fifty million—enrollments in our high schools and colleges were increasing ten fold. Elementary enrollments during the same period merely reflected population trends.

These facts I bring to you because no discussion of the topic would be properly conceived without the realization of the conditions which produced them. It is well to recall then the soundness of the conviction that the vital issues of American education stem from the vital issues of our society and that the goals of education in a democracy are but a reflection of the goals of that democracy. If this be true—and I contend that it is—then before we can properly assay the role of our schools today we must give thought to the future. Here the task becomes more difficult for surely the role of the prophet is always more dangerous and uncertain than the role of the inventory taker. Here too I am at a disadvantage because the popularly accepted definition of an expert is that he is but an ordinary person at least seventy-five miles away from home. Even so, with your indulgence, I make bold enough

to predict certain likely characteristics of the next fifty years, fortifying myself with the observations of men whose competency in this field is, somewhat at least, already established. Paul G. Hoffman, declared recently at Commencement exercises at the University of Pennsylvania his belief that the age ahead may prove to be a golden one and that the atomic era may well be that age "of which men have dreamed for centuries." "Intellectually," he declared, "the enhancement of educational opportunities has opened the door to a richer life for millions." "Our acceptance of the brotherhood of man," he added, "has taken on added substance. Back in the early part of the century it was rare indeed for anyone to even advance an argument that there should be equality of work opportunity for all, regardless of race, creed or color. Today, whatever our practices may be, we at least concede the validity of that doctrine." So says Paul Hoffman, noted American industrialist and Economic Co-operation Administrator.

More specific is Dr. Gerald Wendt, distinguished American scientist. Predicting in the next fifty years a twenty-four hour work week, a life span of from 85 to 90 years (as contrasted with from 62 to 67 today) and average incomes of \$12,000 yearly (as contrasted with \$3000.00 today and \$1000 fifty years ago) Dr. Wendt declares that "another industrial revolution is in the making" and that Americans by the year 2000 or earlier will be riding around in spacious cars powered by rear engine motors as small as typewriters and will be making interplanetary trips by rocket planes. "Electronic thinking machines will work for people in a world of high incomes and free time will be filled with culture, recreation and sports."

What then of the school of tomorrow

for surely the school of the year 2000 is being planned today and is taking shape just as the school of today has emerged from the circumstances and events of the past years. Let me suggest what I believe to be the characteristics and emphases of tomorrow's program of education. It will be marked surely by the downward and upward extension of the educational ladder. Girls and boys upon reaching the age of three will commonly be enrolled in a school that, in my opinion, will include what is today the kindergarten and first four grades. New school construction in the next fifty years will reflect this pattern. A middle school serving girls and boys between the ages of ten and sixteen (the fifth through the tenth grades) will emerge and an upper school meeting the needs of young people between the ages of seventeen and twenty will be established. Schooling in the next half century will be universal between the ages of three and twenty and compulsory attendance laws will be operative nation-wide. In the next fifty years high school graduation, which will be the common experience of all seventeen and eighteen year olds, will be followed by attendance at community colleges by the vast majority of young people and a smaller but sizeable group will enroll in our colleges and universities. High school experiences in the years that lie ahead will take on added significance and meaning and will reflect the obvious contributions that the program of life adjustment education now under way is certain to make. Such a program will take recognition of the individual as a member of a family—both secondary and immediate—his role as a consumer, a producer, a citizen, a taxpayer, a voter, and a member of society at large. Tomorrow's school will witness a further integration of subject matter, a greater concern for

health, a wider use of audio and visual aids (television will be commonplace and history in the making will be observed) while classes will be smaller, present teaching techniques will be improved and new and superior ones devised. Counseling and guidance will be a part of the educational services to children of all ages and the school psychologist and psychiatrist will be as concerned with the mental health of the child as today's doctor is concerned with the physical health of our girls and boys. Better counseling and guidance especially on the high school and immediate post-high school levels will insure more meaningful high school and community college experiences and will result in improved vocational adjustments. A closer integration of education and vocational experiences will result in continued programs geared to further and varied competences while the school will take on the role of a coordinator of community services and agencies. More and wider use of the school plant and the utilization of the services of the school personnel throughout the twelve month period will characterize tomorrow's school while the recognition that education is not confined to any specific time, age or place will serve to widen the locale of the educational process, to popularize all year around camping, hiking and similar experiences, to take greater advantage of museums, trips and excursions and to establish relationships between the schools and innumerable community agencies, institutions and organizations.

Tomorrow's school will stress human relationships and civic responsibilities, appreciative that in an age of atomic and hydrogen bombs and the possibilities of biological warfare that mankind must learn to live together and to get along with each other. The first fifty years of the twentieth century

having already witnessed the death of more persons in warfare than in all of the other centuries of man's recorded experience and with society having perfected the tools and instruments for mass suicide there is the sobering influence that the next war may be the last. $E=MC^2$ must be replaced, it is appreciated, by a formula of human rights if civilization is to survive.

So broad is the topic under discussion that I must take the liberty of its refinement now that I have been bold enough to suggest the basic outlines of tomorrow's school program. Basic, however, to the development of an educational program geared to meet the challenge of the second half of the twentieth century is the need for agreement as to the operating framework. Such a framework is commonly referred to as a statement of philosophy. It can and should provide the foundation upon which the school administration and staff should build and operate their program. It becomes a guide to curriculum planning and a criterion for selection of activities and materials. It is an instrument which should create understanding on the part of all citizens of the basic purposes of the schools.

What should such a statement of philosophy contain if it is to represent the foundational aspects of an educational structure to serve our girls and boys these next fifty years? Let me list nine points:

1. Since a democracy requires the use of intelligence on the part of all citizens, the services of the schools must be available to all the children of all the people in our democracy. Each person must have opportunities and responsibilities according to his capacity. Attempting merely to inculcate right habits and beliefs is inadequate. Each person must be given the privilege to develop as far as he can the use of his intelligence and understanding.
2. Education is a process by which the behavior of people is changed. As a result of education people learn to think, feel, and act differently than they did before.
3. The behavior with which the schools are particularly concerned is that which gives substantial help in the development of people so as to equip them better to take part effectively in our everyday life, contribute to the welfare of others, and make their own lives happy and good.
4. In dealing with the behavior of people, education concerns itself with the whole person. It is concerned with helping people to guide their conduct by reason, to master their feelings through understanding, to develop understanding rather than blind obedience, to use intelligence in reaching decisions rather than unquestioning adherence to habit or prejudice and to acquire a knowledge of self and of the consequences of behavior rather than being guided by strong passions.
5. In carrying out their educational responsibility, schools must deal with and unify all such phases of moral, ethical, social, economic, civic, and community activities of life in which people need to exercise intelligence, and understanding.
6. The schools are the unifying agent for the many educational agencies in the community. They cannot assume the educational responsibilities of other agencies but they can serve to strengthen and coordinate the educative work of the home, church, and other community agencies. The immensity of the task involved in the educational development of people is too great for schools to undertake alone.
7. Education is not limited to classrooms nor to particular age groups. To accomplish its function in our democracy the task of education has become so large that it cannot be completed in the traditional concept of formal years of schooling. Throughout life it appears in many forms involving varying degrees of responsibility on the part of educational agencies. This implies that schools must provide the incentives which help young people to recognize the necessity of a continuing education.
8. The task of the schools is both to help induct young people into adulthood in our present society and help them to contribute to the improvement of that society. People should acquire not only the knowledge, habits, and skills required to make all necessary adjustments and to take their part in the world as they find it. They must also learn to accept the fact of growth and change and thereby help to develop the ideals and understanding that will lead

them to take part in the continuous improvement of American life. The schools must so train young people for responsible citizenship that those young people willingly participate in public affairs and in other forms of worthy civic activities.

9. Educational ideals in which the schools seek to help students build understanding and appreciation are many. They include a profound respect for the dignity and worth of every human being regardless of physical, racial, religious, economic, social, or nationality background; a recognition of equality of opportunity for all; an acceptance of all the implications involved in justice for all; and an appreciation of a variety of talents which contribute to the common welfare.

This statement would be inadequate unless complemented by the designation of "major functions of living," nine in number through which the suggested philosophy will find expression! These, in my opinion, should emphasize the importance of:

1. Practicing American *citizenship*
2. Developing *economic competence*
3. Improving *family living*
4. Protecting *life and health*
5. Building *human relationships*
6. Enjoying *wholesome leisure*
7. Satisfying *spiritual and esthetic needs*
8. Using *tools of communication effectively*
9. Meeting *work responsibilities*

These "major functions" will, of course, be recognized as goals of education—goals that will serve our girls and boys now and in the years ahead.

Motivated by departments, schools and colleges of education, by universi-

ties, by school board members, by interested parents and citizens, school systems everywhere, happily, are concerning themselves with the ever vital problem—what should the schools teach, what are their purposes—what are the goals of American education today and tomorrow? The question will, of course, never be permanently settled because in a social and political order such as ours, objectives are constantly changing and these changing objectives will find reflections in a changing, a fluid and elastic philosophy. Such it must always be in a democratic society. At century's mid-point, however, it is timely and opportune to look ahead, perpetual though the quest may be.

How may the ever constant quest be summarized? I wonder if John Dewey didn't do it for us some years ago when he declared "What the wisest parent wants for his own child, that must the community want for all its children; any other ideal for our schools is narrow and unlovely, acted upon it destroys our democracy."

There remains, however, a deep and abiding responsibility and this presentation would be deficient if no mention were made of it. Constant must be our effort to effect a more adequate understanding of the nature of democratic education, to guard education against attacks and to establish and maintain a condition of mutual trust, understanding and sympathy between the home and the school out of which an intelligent, effective and cooperative partnership may be effectuated.

II. MID-POINT: THE VISION OF THE FUTURE¹

ALVIN C. EURICH

President, State University of New York, Albany, New York

Most appropriately, the theme of this annual meeting of the North Central Association combines a look into the future with an appraisal of education at mid-century. Those responsible for the program were thoroughly sound in assuming that the future of education can be viewed only in the light of historical development, as well as present status.

Following the theme of this conference, I shall restrict my discussion to the field of higher education. More specifically I shall deal with the college and university as frontier institutions. Only in that light does their social role become clear. They have evolved in the past, and will continue to develop in the future, from the need for leadership in a pioneer culture.

Harvard, now more than 300 years old, was founded on the frontier. As the frontier moved westward many other institutions were founded; in fact, we can trace the progress of the frontier by the dates of their establishment. Born of the hopes and ideals of the westward movement, nourished by the faith of the pioneer in education, and shaped by the need to make the most of the human resources of a frontier society, American higher education became unique in philosophy and form. Its purposes, its curriculums, its administrative controls, were those needed for an advancing society.

Today, the college and university still find their place on the frontier of society. With the passing of the geographic frontier, their leadership is still

urgently needed on the intellectual, and what is more important, the social frontier. Their major role has never changed—that of developing the kind of persons needed by society in frontier activities. But the frontier has moved on. It is defined today in the maladjustments of society and the individual. As Carl Sandburg has expressed it:

In the darkness, with a great bundle of grief
the people march.

In the night, and overhead, a shovel of stars for
keeps, the people march.

Where to? What next?

American education has encountered many unique and tough problems in its endeavor to meet the needs of a changing society in the first half of the twentieth century. It has been a transitional period between the Victorian and Atomic ages. And just as we find this a suitable occasion on which to appraise the achievements and reformulate the goals of higher education at mid-century, so we should weigh the accomplishments of the society of which it is a part. Such an appraisal may well reveal the areas in which higher education should define its goals and identify the new frontiers.

There are many of us who can still recall, with some nostalgia, the spirit of optimism and self-confidence typical of the first years of the present century. True, it was a time of change, but change and progress were then synonymous. We were steadily becoming more civilized, and sloughing off some of our lingering relics of barbarism. Or so we thought. War had fallen into disfavor, almost into disuse, and been supplanted by a new procedure—arbitration. Or so we thought. And with the maturing of the industrial revolu-

¹ Delivered before the Second General Session of the Association in Chicago, March 24, 1950. The second of two addresses on the theme, "Education at the Mid-Century: The Vision of the Future."

tion, the realization of a new and enlightened culture, freed from poverty, want, and disease, seemed not only reasonable, but inevitable. We recalled how a few Athenians, through the leisure time provided by their slaves, could produce the Periclean Age. What might we not achieve, with our technical resources and the momentum of social progress driving us onward and upward?

Somehow, it didn't work out that way. Something, in the formula, was missing. Could it be "the momentum of social progress?" Let us examine some of the reasonable expectations of a half century ago, and see how they turned out. It was reasonably assumed:

1. That with per capita productivity steadily rising, technical knowledge increasing, and new resources being developed, a plentiful production at least of the necessities of life should eliminate poverty and economic insecurity.

What actually happened? We mastered the techniques of production, but not those of distribution. In the depression of the 30's we experienced the paradox of want in the midst of overproduction. We were, as Will Rogers said, the first people ever to go to the poorhouse in an automobile.

2. That the coming of inexpensive mass methods of communication would raise the intellectual and cultural levels, if not lead to a new renaissance. Knowledge became cheap and knowledge was power.

What actually happened? At best, the educational possibilities of movies, radio, television, far from being realized, are hardly understood. *At the worst*, there is much speculation as to the extent of their contribution to adult and juvenile delinquency. In any case it is humiliating to compare the trash on our news stands with the literature read to the Greek public at the ancient Olympic Games.

3. That the steadily rising proportion of leisure time made available by higher per capita productivity, would lead to more satisfying personal and family life, as well as social and cultural progress.

What actually happened? The most popular leisure activities are of the escape type—literary, movie, and radio trash, spectator sports, gambling and vice. We have created an underworld, supported by such leisure time activities as gambling and vice. We produced not another Pericles, but an Al Capone.

Similar records of failure in other fields occur to all of us. Each is evidence of a need for leadership in a new area—social and personal adjustment to technical change. Social lag will disappear to the degree that there exist an informed public, an organized plan of action, and specially prepared leaders. These must replace our faith in "the momentum of social progress."

What have been the contributions of higher education to society during this difficult period? The whole world has been impressed by its magnificent job in the training of specialists. Nothing comparable to, or even approaching, our scientific and technical accomplishments during the war has ever been achieved. University trained leaders have raised our per capita productivity to the highest level in the world—2.8 times that of England per man hour. In agriculture, business, engineering, and the sciences, they are largely responsible for our position of world leadership. During our period of expansion and industrial growth the services of these trained specialists was sorely needed, and the need was met. They still are needed today in these and other fields, if we are to fulfill our responsibilities of world leadership.

Yet we must face the fact that during our decades of industrial expansion and our decades devoted to the winning of the West, all education was affected by the materialistic elements of those times. The tendency was to stress training for money-making and time saving.

Now we are the richest nation in the world. We *have* the money. But what

good is the time? We are confronted with the threat of unlimited leisure and we are totally unprepared to meet it. Per capita production, which is the real determining factor of the work-week, is still rising. With atomic power now a reality, a work-week of 30, 15 or even 5 hours is not an impossible outlook. Unless we are prepared, Chancellor Hutchins may be right when he says: "In a few years we will all be killed, or bored to death."

The industrial revolution, while providing us with the opportunities of unlimited leisure, simultaneously created emotional tensions that led to its dissipation. Whether presently employed or unemployed, there is less opportunity for the citizen today to achieve status and self-respect through his work. Hence his leisure time activities reveal his drive to escape from a self that he suspects is no better than he is afraid it is.

In some this gives rise in the maniac behavior recommended by Bruce Barton and his successors to lose one's self in his work, and, we would add, until rescued by ulcers and coronary thrombosis. In others we see evidences of the futile outlook of Omar:

A moment in annihilation waste;
A moment for the Well of Life to taste;
The stars are paling, and the Caravan
Starts for the dawn of—nothing; Oh make haste!

Education, it is true, will always reflect the character of the society of which it is a part. But its shortcomings cannot be excused on the trivial pleas that society has the same shortcomings. The responsibility of higher education is for leadership: for setting new goals and revealing new horizons for society. We can no longer ignore the social maladjustments which have developed during our preoccupation with providing technical leadership. Some of the resulting problems have arisen in areas

which are very clearly defined. Let us examine a few.

1. More trained men and women are needed by an expanded government service. The functions of government are increased by every technical advance. We may view with alarm the six million government employees, federal, state, and local, which constitute 10 per cent of our labor force. Yet, we cannot abandon, for example, the services rendered essential by the introduction of the automobile alone—highway and parking construction, street widening, traffic regulation, with regulation also of a host of satellite enterprises such as the oil industry, tourist courts, and road houses. Little has been done to train this vast number of employees to deal effectively with the social adjustments necessitated by technical change.

2. Both trained leadership and an informed public are needed in the related field of foreign relations. The United States was forced into a position of international responsibility unintentionally, and against her will. World leadership is a field for which we have few aspirations, and little preparation. We do not have the long heritage of contacts with other people, nor trained leaders who understand foreign cultures. We do not, in short, like our world responsibilities, but the alternatives to carry them are catastrophic.

A people acting outside of its traditional orbit, and with little understanding of those with whom it is dealing, is inevitably naïve and inconsistent. This is illustrated in our dealings with Russia. We are at one time trustful and appeasing, again we are disillusioned and tough. We wanted conferences yesterday, we don't want them today, we may want them tomorrow.

Actually we vacillate because we do not know how else to deal with the

Russians. As a matter of sober fact, we do not know how to deal with the still greater problem of Asia. Our national policies must be directed by men carefully schooled in the cultures they will have to encounter. And I suggest, with some urgency, that unless our foreign relations are placed in the hands of men so trained, our ignorance of an awakened and industrialized Asia will result in such embroilments in the coming years as will make our present Russian problem seem relatively insignificant.

3. Problems in the field of labor relations demand trained leaders both in labor and management, and greater understanding on the part of the public. Nowhere is the social and personal impact of technical change more clearly evident, or better understood in the abstract. Labor must certainly share, through a steadily rising standard of living, in the benefits of increasing per capita productivity. Management must be protected from exorbitant labor costs that threaten to price its product out of the market. Trained leadership in both fields, and public understanding and emotional maturity, are needed if the apparently conflicting interests are to be settled otherwise than as a trial of strength, with a temporary Pyrrhic victory for one side or the other.

4. And, above all, we must face the problem of people with time on their hands. Public responsibility for the individual's off-duty activities, largely as a corrective and preventive measure, has long been recognized. On a national scale, the U.S.O. served this function in the armed forces. In the cities the program is extending beyond playgrounds and athletic fields, and into Civic Art, community theaters, and music. Yet these relatively minor steps still leave untouched the most tragic

aspects of our failure to cope adequately with the problem of leisure. It is through his off-work activities that the individual does, or does not achieve sustained personal growth, with broader and more satisfying interests, and emotional maturity. And it is from the so-called leisure time activities, devoted to personal, community and family affairs, that our culture does, or does not, become an expression of our democratic ideals. How we spend our off-work time determines the character and progress of our civilization. No single issue in the whole problem of social and personal adjustment to technical change is more pregnant with possibility for progress or disasters.

From this brief overview of a few problem areas on the frontier of social and personal adjustment we see clearly the need for new and imaginative programs and cooperative effort in higher education. If higher education is to lead the way in securing for our social and personal advancement the same limitless horizons that it has achieved in the technical fields, it must assume several new responsibilities.

First, the institutions of higher education must be coordinated, and a stronger unified program developed, probably on a regional basis. Those who created the North Central Association recognized, in so doing, the importance of joint action on a regional level. The Cooperative Library being developed in Chicago by the great universities of the Midwest is a recent and another forward looking step in the same direction.

In other parts of the country the pattern of inter-state cooperation that proved indispensable for developing and conserving natural resources has proved equally valuable for human resources. The plans being developed in the thirteen Southern States Plan-

ning Program and the eleven Rocky Mountain States, are designed so that each state shares a costly school in one field—let us say Medicine—and buys the use of other schools elsewhere—let us say Veterinary Medicine and Dentistry. Planning is done and needs assessed on a regional basis. The combined strength of the region is back of each school, which, in turn, serves the whole region. No university regardless of its resources can today cover all fields for which scholars and leaders generally must be provided.

Second, the University must utilize all the resources available for social and personal adjustment. We have noted, in treating this as a problem area, the potentialities of leisure for personal, social, and cultural advancement. Actually, our greatest resources are human resources: our greatest power is human power fully developed.

We have never for example realized the potential contributions of women to our society. An adequate educational program must be planned for them. Whether in co-educational or women's colleges, they study essentially the courses and the curricula historically planned for men, and largely obsolete even for them. In an inadequate and uninteresting way we have given some recognition to their probable role as home-makers, and as wage-earners. But their aptitudes and opportunities for improving community life, and their special interests and talents in fields relating to human and social understanding, are unexploited resources essential in the problem areas of social and personal adjustment. In the times ahead we shall need all our resources.

Third, we must develop leaders in fields to which we have devoted relatively little attention. Our responsibilities for producing leaders for techni-

cal advancement have been fulfilled long and well. But we have left to the old apprenticeship system the development of leadership to cope with maladjustment due to technical advances. Thus, indirectly, our problems are those of our own creation. Leadership training for problem areas such as those we have examined is long overdue.

Finally, we must develop higher level of competence for citizenship. In each of the problem areas we have been impressed with this need. Each in turn has demanded understanding of technical change as related to social change, cultures of other people, labor problems, and preparation for effective use of leisure. While technical changes can be brought about by a relatively small number of trained experts, social adjustment to technical change requires intelligent support and cooperation from all the people. From the point of view of the curriculum, preparation for effective citizenship must be provided as part of the educational program of all students. It is, therefore, part of the program of general education.

Above all, there must be opportunity in the program for the student to learn that he is a part of society. Genuine participation is required to teach him that he shares its successes and failures; that what threatens society threatens him; and that the cooperative activities and goals it affords are so rich in satisfactions as to make individualistic goals trivial in comparison. These are the attitudes of citizens competent and willing to assume the heavy responsibilities of modern democracy.

Not only the progress of society, but the happiness and emotional maturity of the individual depend on such productive social participation. Only in

the satisfactions of one who has shared in the efforts to make the world a better place in which to live, do we find the enduring values that surmount the frustrations and trivialities of modern life.

Here then, we see the outline of the responsibility of higher education for leadership today and tomorrow: to mobilize the agencies and resources needed to bring about social and personal adjustment to technical change; to develop leaders needed in the problem areas; and to produce citizens who can really make the work of leaders effective.

This is an absorbing assignment on the social and educational frontier.

Essentially, it is an assignment to provide the kind of person needed for leadership and citizenship in the atomic age. It is not a new assignment. It differs only in its specifications from that of three centuries ago, when the first of our colleges was founded to produce leaders for a pioneer society. That the original assignment was fulfilled is abundantly evident. Whether the present assignment is more or less difficult, who can say? The fundamental character of American higher education remains unchanged in any case—a frontier institution, designed to provide the kind of men and women needed for our time.

I. EDUCATION AT THE MID-CENTURY: INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING¹

HOWARD E. WILSON

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I WANT, first of all, to call your attention to certain characteristics or aspects of the international situation in which we find ourselves; and second, to suggest two or three implications of that situation for American education.

At this mid-point of the Twentieth Century, international relations have a greater importance for Americans than they have ever had before. The Century already has on its record the two most destructive wars in human history, in both of which this nation has been involved.

Isolation, even to the extent that it was ever ours, is now a thing past. It has receded into history, and today the United States is deeply and irrevocably involved in world affairs. We are so involved, not because we want to meddle in the affairs of other countries or that they want to meddle in ours, but because there is no longer a distinction between our affairs and theirs.

The way of living to which we have come in this century is dependent upon international exchange of goods, of ideas, and of people. No nation today can live the good life alone. We know now, if we never knew before, that mankind has a common destiny; that the American future is bound up with the future of Europe and Asia and Africa and all the remote places of this planet. Civilization has grown so complex and has reached such heights that education with respect to

international relations and educational requirements connected therewith are the very breath of its life.

International relations today are not merely diplomatic maneuverings. The concept of international relations as something remote and exclusively political, and as a little "high hat" is no longer tenable.

International relations not only touch every geographic section of the planet, but also every phase or aspect of our lives; the world's food supply; the conservation of natural resources; the maintenance of public health; the acquisition of an education; the avoidance of an economic depression; the establishment of basic human rights—all these and many more are caught up in the network of international relations.

Each of us lives with international relations all the time without ever negotiating a treaty or even seeing a foreign embassy. The old distinction between domestic and foreign affairs has been eliminated. Today, all affairs are, in some degree, international in scope, in action, and in influence.

It is one of the ironies of history that at the very time when we have been thrust fully and consciously into international relations, mankind has acquired new and terrible power, sufficient even for his own destruction. International relations are complex and basic enough without having these new weapons of death added to them; but they have been added. Now the stakes are much higher. Existence itself is thrown into the arena of international action.

¹ Mr. Wilson spoke before the Third General Session of the Association at Chicago, March 23, 1950. This account is based upon a stenotyped report of his address.

These new weapons—the atomic bomb, bacterial warfare, radioactive clouds, relatively controllable poison gases, perhaps the H-bomb, all are the foci of our attention. They exercise a fascination on us like that of a snake for its prey. At times they seem to paralyze us with terror, or to threaten to stampede us into unwarranted action.

We have had, and we shall have many more, sleepless nights in contemplation of these terrific instruments of mass destruction. But in a deeper sense, these instruments should not be the magnets of our attention. They are not the prime source of our worry.

Not one of these instruments will set itself in motion. They are dangerous only to the extent that the hands and minds that control them are dangerous. It is man himself that we need most to worry about. If the masters of these instruments can be but masters of themselves as well, we need not fear. If we can find, or produce men and women of such intelligence and ethics to work out the problems of international living, the future will be better than the past.

The shaping of men and women adequate to the needs and the risks of this day is our first, our basically realistic, concern, and that is a task of education. In the conduct of foreign policy, the nations of today are increasingly recognizing the importance of something vaguely called "cultural relations."

In a sense, the cold war has made us all conscious that ideas are weapons. We know now that the Voice of America, the Marshall Plan, the magnificent operations of the Fulbright Program, the annual exchange of teachers with England, the reception of twenty-seven thousand foreign students in our colleges, and the dispatch of some fifteen thousand American students for

study abroad, the interchange of documentary films for educational purposes, and dozens of other such activities as these, are a vital part of our relations with other people, and are a vital element in American foreign policy as well.

A unique feature of the United Nations, as contrasted with the League of Nations, is its emphasis on economic and social and cultural matters. The development of UNESCO as one of the specialized agencies of the United Nations with its far-flung program of educational activities is another example of the extent to which cultural and educational affairs have come close to the center, not only of the foreign policy of individual nations, but also of that policy of joint action which is embodied in the United Nations' system.

We are faced not only with the terrific weapons of destruction but we are faced, also, with the situation that governments and inter-governmental agencies are recognizing, as they never did before: the possibilities of constructive action through these cultural, educational, social, and industrial channels.

What I am trying to emphasize is the fact that international relations today are infinitely complex. They surround us in every possible way. There are in them certain terrors, and there are in those current relations certain encouraging factors, particularly in this emphasis on cultural matters.

Now I would like to suggest in the next few minutes certain implications of these facts for American education. One could extend this list of implications very, very far. I shall not attempt to do that, but will select only three or four factors that seem to have, for me, primary consequence for American education in the large.

In all of what I have said thus far I

have used the term "education" very loosely. I still want to use it loosely. The education that I am concerned with here is not one that is confined to schools and colleges. It is education in the broadest sense.

To me, the first implication of the broadened scope of education is the necessity—and it *is* a necessity—for increased, more effective coordination between the educational programs of our schools and colleges, and the agencies of mass communication which are striking phenomena of our times. The relationship between what we do in our classrooms and what is done in radio-broadcasting stations or in newspaper offices or in film studios, is a relationship that is becoming increasingly crucial to the effectiveness of education in the large.

I would like to illustrate this fact in connection with UNESCO. I had the privilege of working in the Preparatory Commission of UNESCO for a year, and I have watched the development of that international organization fairly closely since that time. I know that one reason why it has not progressed more rapidly than it has, though its progress has been great, is that there was never an adequate working arrangement between education, as narrowly defined—an institutional process—and what UNESCO called the "mass communication" program—radio, film, and movies. I suspect that at Lake Success the radio people, the school people, the college people, the film people, the newspaper people, speak different languages, and frequently distrust one another.

Actually the momentum with which social evolution now takes place, the rapidity with which the succeeding crises come upon us, means that we have to integrate, to coordinate the educational influences from all sources if we are going to be effective. I would

say, therefore, that the first implication of the international situation for schools and colleges today is that we must find new means and better means of correlating our activities with those of adult education, but a little more than that, even with those of the education of young people, the young people we are dealing with through these means of mass communication.

A second implication for me is the necessity of the desirability of American education, both narrowly and broadly considered, taking a more effective and decisive stand in respect to the formation of our own foreign policy and our influence upon international organization.

In the field of UNESCO again, for example, education's voice was not adequately heard for a long while, because it was a dispersed voice. There were twenty or more different organizations at the international level, each trying to speak for education, and each a little jealous of the others. If there had been one voice for education as a whole, and that voice had been exercised in decisive tones, I suspect UNESCO would have gone beyond its present stage of development.

We hear a great deal about education as an instrument of foreign policy. It is that. But as educators, we can't afford just to be used as instruments of foreign policy. We must also participate in the formation of that foreign policy. It would seem to me, therefore, that statements from associations such as this, directed to the Department of State or to other agencies working at the international level, are entirely appropriate. They are called for on a scale much greater than we have previously employed. I am certain that the National Commission for UNESCO in this country would be in a better position to further the cultural relations' program of this country and the

UNESCO program itself, if it heard more frequently and more decisively from the educational leaders in this country.

A third implication for education as a whole is the cultivation of education's own international relations. I made the point a little while ago that international relations are not the prerogative of the diplomat. They are in the possession of all of us, and must be, if this democratic way of life is to be maintained. That means that as educators we must have an increasing network of relations with educators in other lands. We need to have a greater interchange of educational personnel than we now have, although that interchange is growing very rapidly.

We need to participate, ourselves, both as individuals and as national or sectional organizations in an international organization. The world organization of the teaching profession, which is just now coming into full and active existence, should, I think, have the ardent support, not only of the individuals in this room, but of an association such as is meeting here.

There is coming into existence, also an International Association of Universities. Its next major meeting will be held at Nice, this coming December. Various American educational institutions have been invited to participate. It seems to me they have the responsibility for participating and for making the American voice in the university world heard at that international level. There are many other associations within the academic field on an international level that we are obligated to work through if we expect to use education in the full network of communication that may bind the world together.

One final implication that I would point out deals directly with the program of schools and colleges. I have no doubt that the administrative of-

ficers of any institution, either at the secondary or at the higher level, should develop an over-all strategy for that institution in respect to international affairs. I am certain that most institutions have resources in this field that are as yet unused, and that the welfare of the country calls for.

At the college level there are aspects of research that need to be considered, such as, what research is desired by those operating at the international level. There are problems of the training of an international civil service, or of leaders in our own foreign service. There are problems of the general interest content of general education. There are problems related to foreign students, not merely the obligation of giving them good treatment, but of using them as a resource in the further education of young Americans in international understanding. There are problems of the closer dovetailing of periods of foreign study with our own degree programs of higher education. And there are problems of closer articulation of the research and personnel needs of the government and of inter-governmental agencies.

To a certain degree, the same thing is true at the school level. The first need is for the administrative officers of an institution to canvass the entire institution. Do not think that education for international understanding rests with the curriculum alone. It rests with the total program of the school or the college. And that total program involves a plan of over-all strategy in respect to international relations for each educational institution.

With what I have thus far said as background, I want to make the recommendation that each of us can do a good deal more than we ordinarily would do in actual instruction about the United Nations. I am not much

impressed at the general-education level with the kind of instruction about the United Nations which approaches its sort of structurally, theoretically, descriptively, and which says, "Here is the General Assembly, and here is the Security Council, and here are the specialized agencies. They have these respective functions, and they're related in these ways."

I would hope that we can get a more functional and human and realistic approach than this into our education about the United Nations' system. For homely illustration, what are the problems of communication among the representatives of various nations who come together at Lake Success, either in the Secretariat or in the various assemblies or commissions—the problems which we think are sometimes solved by simultaneous translation systems? Well, simultaneous translation doesn't solve them. It simply focuses the problems of translation on an individual in a telephone booth, who listens to what is being said in a given language. But very frequently the speaker is using a technical vocabulary, and the translator may not be able to give the right shade of meaning in his translation.

In 1947 I was trying to introduce the staff of a UNESCO seminar to the participants in the seminar. There were eighty educators who came from thirty-odd countries. We had a staff of eight or ten people. Among them was a woman, a well-known French educator, who was the Social Director of the Seminar. But I felt it was not sufficiently dignified for her to be introduced as the Social Director; so I introduced her as "dean." I was speaking in English and my words were immediately put into French by an expert interpreter, one of the best the Army had in Berlin. But he didn't know the exact meaning of "dean," so he intro-

duced her in French as "*doyen*," which I believe means "the eldest." It took at least three days for me to overcome that little slip in translation.

I do not want to over-emphasize the business of translation or interpretation. All I am trying to illustrate is this: There is a homely and human side to the relations of the individuals who are working at international problems. Their own personalities, their own habits, their own sense of values are always involved in the international decisions that they make. Until we can, through programs of instruction, inform our pupils, get this realistic, human side of international action to them, they will, I think, not be adequately equipped to view the international scene into which their generation is cast.

Well, what I have tried to say this afternoon with respect to background is simply this: First, we are caught up in international relations on a scale never experienced before in our history, and we are thus caught up whether we want to be or not. Second, in those international relations we are prone, I think, to concentrate too much upon materials, upon weapons, upon the terrors of the international situation, when in reality the things that we have to deal with are the human beings who are trying to work out those international relations, or who must be trusted to handle those weapons. That brings us to an educational problem. Third, there is nothing sacrosanct or mysterious or remote about these international relations. These are the things that surround all of us all the time. International relations are not the prerogative of the diplomat. They are caught up in the lives of all of us.

In the light of this background, I suggested certain implications, the first being that I believe we have to work much more closely with the agencies of

adult education if we are going to do the job that needs to be done or if we are going to have our voice adequately heard. In the second place, I tried to say that education needs to speak its mind, publicly, and to government, on matters in the cultural-relations field; in the third, that we have to cultivate our own international relations in order to increase this network

of communication among the right-minded peoples of the world, on which the ultimate hope of peace must rest; and lastly, I suggested that each institution provide not structural but functional, not remote but personal and human, instruction about the system which our generation has produced, and which is man's best hope for the future—that of the United Nations.

II. EDUCATION AT THE MID-CENTURY: INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING¹

ANDREW CORDIER

The United Nations, Lake Success, New York

IT IS a delight to be here because I come among people who possess the same approach to life and to the solution of the problems of life which I think are fundamental to the procedures and processes and methods that must be used by the United Nations.

Because the work of the United Nations is fundamentally the work of education, it is an adaptation of moral authority, of moral pressures to international situations; and, therefore, I find myself among a people, all of whom possess a faith which is derived from that philosophy, a faith in moral authority and in the capacity of man to solve his problems rationally by peaceful procedures. It is that faith, the identity of the faith of those of you who are working in education, and of some of the rest of us who are working in another kind of education, that provides some element of hope in an otherwise serious world situation, because it makes it possible for us to attain results in fields of international adjudication—of international disputes and tensions. And there is, indeed, beyond this faith, a certain similarity in methods and procedures, which, as we shall see in a few moments, are quite similar on the educational side to the methods and procedures that must be used in the international field through the channels of the United Nations.

In these broad ways, in terms of our common faith, in terms of the common philosophy that undergirds that faith, in terms of the similarity of methods

and objectives that we use, we are a part, indeed, of the same task. And indeed, we live in a world in which the boundary line that used to be very sharp between domestic matters and international matters has very largely disappeared. This world has been made small and, in some respects, more complex by virtue of the miracle changes that have come upon us in the last half-century primarily through the inventive genius of mankind. Therefore, we find ourselves in a world which has become a smaller world, and therefore, in some respects, the tensions are deeper.

They are deeper because we have thought ourselves so completely in each other's laps. Psychologically the world has become one. Emotionally it has become one, in the sense that we engage in an understanding of each other's problems at the same period of the calendar, on the same day in the same week. Back in the medieval period, when the analysts were writing the story of medieval life in southern France, the peoples of northern France became aware of some of the happenings in southern France not in the same day or the same month, and very often not in the same year, but much later.

The lack of means of quick communication meant that humanity consisted of little islands of people, separated by comparatively small spaces, but separated nevertheless by the absence of a simple means of communication from the emotional life interests of other groups living not far away. Today, however, we find ourselves interested in the events around the world as those events are brought to our notice by

¹ Adapted from the stenotyped record of Mr. Cordier's address before the Third General Session of the Association at Chicago, March 24, 1950.

newspapers, by radio, by other forms of communication. And thus we become emotionally attached to events in China, to events in Europe, to events in other parts of the world; and that emotional identification has various effects.

On one side it tends to produce a tendency towards an intensification of the problem. On the other side, it tends to produce a pattern through which it may be possible for us to solve the problem, because through emotional identification we may reach quicker understanding of the facts underlying it.

When I was travelling in the interior of South America some years ago, I said to my host, "What change has taken place in the life of these people that is most marked in the last hundred years?" He said quite readily, "It is the change produced by the introduction of the radio." The radio had made this remarkable change, because through the radio, for the first time it was possible for them to become partners in a teeming world of interesting things and happenings.

Over in eastern Europe, in the peasant villages of eastern Poland and of eastern Rumania, I asked the same question a few years ago; and there was the same answer. It was the radio that was pulling the world together into one great community of common information, and therefore of common emotional tension.

But now, in addition to these means whereby in a sense we become simultaneously the actors and the players on the stage of life with ready transformation from participation to observation, we find ourselves in a position where the whole of the world cannot escape the recognition of the nature of the problem which confronts us at the present time, the problem of actually grappling with the terrific difficulties

that exist with respect to the major issues between nations themselves.

Now, these major issues between East and West, between the United States and the Soviet Union, between the two great sets of world communities, are issues, after all, which can only be resolved if one takes a long-range view of them. Therefore, in the few minutes I have I want to describe some of the underlying procedures and methods which, as I said a moment ago, are quite similar to the methods and procedures that are used in the field of education.

Mr. Lie, the Secretary-General, in a Washington speech two days ago, suggested a twenty-year plan for the procurement of peace. That twenty-year plan was suggested only as an intimation of the way in which we need to approach the problem psychologically. In other words, it is necessary for us to take into account the fact that the problems that confront the East and West, the atomic energy problem, organizational problems in the United Nations, the problem of disarmament, the problem of producing a new atmosphere between the East and the West—all of these are problems which take time. Therefore, one of the most important aspects of approaching any problem which is serious in character is to recognize the time element, because there is the possibility of the hysteria of ill-planned action on the one hand, and of the paralysis of fear on the other. Neither of these extremes is desirable.

Thus it is important to recognize that the solution of any problems takes a long, long time; that perhaps dramatic methods are the least well-devised to secure results; and therefore, that some of the suggestions which have been made to deal with the international tensions that exist at the present time, the elaborately and widely-publi-

cized meetings of a new character, which would approach in a decisive and definitive way the issues between the East and the West, would, in fact be wrong.

What is needed is a very careful preparatory background, in which every effort would be made to understand the essential issues and then to use the machinery that exists at the present time, recognizing that that machinery may temporarily lead to no result; but use the procedures nevertheless that give the best prospect of success over and over again. Such repetition eventually may break through the outer crust of some of these difficulties. We could then proceed with the proper solution of the difficulties in question.

The fourth purpose stated in Article I of the Charter of the United Nations is to provide a center for the harmonizing of the interests of its members.

That fourth point is beginning to be of increasing importance. Although the Soviet Union has walked out of a great number of the organized meetings of the commissions and councils, it has remained under the roof of the United Nations. It becomes possible, therefore, for that organization to continue to function as a center for harmonizing the interests of the East and the West; and it has been doing so in the course of the last several months. It is the roof, the house of the thousand doors, as some high official in the State Department has put it, under which and within which it is possible for the representatives of the East and the West to meet and talk over their common problems.

I now wish to turn to certain other aspects of the work of the United Nations.

One of the unfortunate aspects is the tendency of the press to think that the dramatic, and sometimes the nega-

tive, is newsworthy. And again and again the news that is given the widest publicity is least worthy. But I presume that the desire for the spectacular is in all of us, which causes us to be susceptible to such news, and causes newspapers, in turn, to print it. I think, however, as educators, as people who are devoted to the stable undercurrents of growth and progress, and who can become excited and enthused and concerned about the sole evolutionary processes of growth, you are a people who will observe, likewise, the way in which the United Nations contributes substantially to the solution of the major problems that come before it.

To me the exciting aspect of the United Nations' work is the way in which day by day, month by month, and year by year, it tackles international problems and successfully resolves them. Let us observe three or four areas in which this is done.

In the field of mediation and conciliation, the United Nations has done much. In fact, at San Francisco there was a common feeling that the United Nations would be based, perhaps primarily, upon Article 43 of the Charter that provides for contingency forces. Through great-power indecision, or the incapacity of the great powers to agree, those contingency forces have not been provided.

But in this four or five-year period now, that is since 1945, the United Nations has made very, very substantial progress in the solution of international problems through the reconciliation of disputants and the pacific settlement of international difficulties. For instance, the war in Indo-Pakistan led to the loss of perhaps a million lives. The United Nations intervened through the processes of pacific intervention, and a "cease fire" was accepted by the two sides, which is still being maintained by a mechanism

which we have kept in the Subcontinent for two years.

Then there was the war in Palestine which likewise showed evidence of spreading and developing into a series of complicating relationships with other outside nations. The United Nations again intervened, and through the processes of peaceful intervention and various pressures brought together to form a pattern of strength, peace was brought to the Holy Land. And after the "cease fire" a truce was established; and after the truce, a series of armistice agreements was set up, and in turn a series of steps is now being taken for the purpose of achieving a permanent settlement of the difficulties between Israel and her neighbors.

Another outstanding example is the case of Indonesia, where seventy million people became involved in a struggle with their rulers, the Dutch people; and that war came to a peaceful end. Today Indonesia is an independent nation working out her relationships with the Dutch on a peaceable basis and developing the institutions of nationhood successfully within the pattern of peace.

These are three illustrations of the work that the United Nations has done in the field of pacific settlement.

Another instance of peaceful intervention in which the United Nations played a role was the elimination of the Berlin impasse more than a year ago. To be sure, other forces were at work in that case, but the United Nations played an important part in the final breaking of the impasse between the East and the West at that point.

In the United Nations we have developed a very elaborate procedure to produce maximum effectiveness of the processes of mediation and conciliation. We have exchanged information among Palestine, the Balkans, Pakistan, Indonesia, Korea, the Italian colonies,

and all the trouble spots of the world, so that the procedures that are found helpful in one part of the world may be applied in another.

Even within the United States we have done this, under the auspices of a private organization. We have had a series of meetings between outstanding leaders in the field of American mediation between labor and management, and our top mediation people, in order to exchange information about mediation in the area of labor-management, as compared with procedures in international situations, such as Palestine or Indo-Pakistan, for example. In other words, we're attempting to use every possible educational device; every possible utilization of information; every possible means of securing an exchange of information which may increase the effectiveness of the United Nations in conciliation and mediation.

This is another aspect of this special mediation that is of great importance to the United Nations, namely, human understanding.

First of all, there must be an understanding of the background, the history, the social customs, the life of the people who enter into dispute—full, complete, mature understanding of the disputants.

Second, there must be the capacity to put yourself in the other person's place. Again and again, the expression is used at Lake Success, "If you were in the place of so-and-so in X country, how would you look at the problem? What would be your reaction to various types of facts and to various situations, if you were in his place?" The capacity to put yourself in the shoes of the disputants is a factor of the greatest possible importance if one is to achieve success in the fields of mediation and conciliation.

Third, a mediator must be objective. He cannot be a partisan. He cannot

favor one side as against another. He cannot favor one side one moment and another side the next moment. There must be absolutely granite-like objectivity if he is to produce the kind of confidence which is necessary in order to cause the nations to rally to the mechanism that is set up for the purpose of achieving necessarily desirable results in the fields of mediation and conciliation. Objectivity is an extremely important and necessary quality in the life of the United Nations. It is a quality which the Secretary-General and I have tried to emphasize over and over again in our work in the day-by-day conferences at Lake Success.

Fourth, a closely-allied quality to objectivity is integrity. Integrity is a quality which is very soon recognized when one becomes involved in a serious international dispute. If integrity is maintained, if there is candor and honesty and a kind of strict adherence to fundamental, ethical and moral values in an international situation, it will soon be discovered on the part of the disputants.

These are the major qualities that really are required in a mediator. Dr. Bunche has them in abundance. Admiral Nimitz has them in abundance. There are others I can cite who possess them and consequently have made remarkable contributions in the field of international mediation and conciliation.

There is another point I want to raise now with regard to the work of the United Nations; it is quite undesirable to study it merely on a structural basis. The United Nations is a living institution and is to be approached as such.

The General Assembly, in the way in which I am going to describe it, not only is one of the interesting structural aspects of the United Nations but

functional as well, because in the General Assembly one finds the most expansive of the organs of the United Nations. It is the one in which all the members of the United Nations are represented. It looks, it talks, it votes like a legislature. And in that regard, by looking, talking, and acting like a legislature, it brings together in the only major spot in the world, the views of fifty-nine nations. It creates, therefore, the kind of condition which is essential to the promotion of international understanding if we believe fundamentally that international understanding can come best through the processes of moral suasion. If it is possible to gain results through moral suasion, certainly the United Nations General Assembly represents the reservoir, the means, the pattern through which it is possible to attain results.

I could cite numerous illustrations of national delegations that have come to the United Nations for the purpose of expressing a point of view, or of getting additional fragments of truth with respect to the point of view which they come to present. It is more thrilling than watching a very stirring athletic contest to observe the way in which new ideas emerge from the debates that take place in the General Assembly. Free discussion makes possible the emergence of new concepts of minds and of experience, which, in my judgment, represent the essence of human progress.

As the American delegation came to the United Nations, they would say, as they have on several occasions, "We are presenting this paper not as a definitive one. We are presenting it because we feel that this is at least one approach, a desirable approach perchance, but we do not have a monopoly on the truth; therefore, we did not present a final resolution because we know that there are other members

within the United Nations who can make their contributions."

That, indeed, is beautiful evidence, it seems to me, of the kind of mutual exchange which is necessary if we are to develop a peaceful world; for America at mid-century is in an extraordinarily particular position, that of suddenly possessing a quality and a quantity of power unique in world history, while at the same time it is in the peculiar position of studying the basis of the exercise of that power in our kind of world.

There is perhaps in the lives of all of us a tendency to tell people off. And if we will examine our attitudes in international affairs, we perhaps have in that area a little more of a tendency than in other areas to tell nations off. If we are to exercise an influence as a nation, and if other people are to respect and to admire the American way of life, it must come through the increasing acknowledgment on the part of the American people that life is always a process in which there is a free exchange of ideas, and truth emerges from that exchange. Truth emerges from that exchange to the degree that it makes it possible for us to move on to other levels of human progress. It is on that basis that American influence in the half-century to come will blossom into something worthy of the special kind of a rôle which we are playing and can play.

And so, in the General Assembly of the United Nations there is the pattern which makes it possible for the United States, or any other country, to express its views, to share its knowledge, to share its truth with other countries; and out of this sharing of truth, out of this sharing of information from the twenty republics of the Western Hemisphere, from the countries of Africa and Asia, from the countries of Europe, will come, finally, a crystalliza-

tion of views expressed in recommendations which are in turn enforced. Therefore, the General Assembly, affords not only a world procedure through which it is possible to bring about an expression of a world view which represents the amalgam of the views of a number of nations, but it represents in its unity the best expression of the public opinion of mankind which mankind itself endorses and which mankind itself will enforce.

Therefore, when it is said that the General Assembly is not in the true sense a legislative body, my answer is that it has, nevertheless, a power and a process and a procedure which provide a channel through which the world today can advance by means of the expressing of human knowledge; of the speaking of truth; of the crystallizing of its views into public policy—and produce by that fact a more effective international life.

Another point with regard to the work of the United Nations is the way in which that organization has contributed to the field of international cooperation in economic and social areas, leading to the fulfillment or the promotion of human rights and of man's ambitions and hopes with respect to the expression of human rights.

In this field it is important to note that we are today living in a changing world. It is important to observe, for example, that in the last five years ten new nations have emerged in Asia to the status of full independence. Those ten nations represent nearly one-third of the population of the world—six hundred million people.

When you put the responsibility for nationhood into the hands of the people, you do, of course, on the one side, a very great favor to yourself in the sense that you are recognizing the right of a people to be free; but at the same time, you place upon humanity

a heavy obligation to assist those peoples to participate fully in international life, and to achieve the full stature of their national life.

Let me use an illustration. In 1952, under a resolution passed by the General Assembly last Fall, Libya is to be free. We sent a commission out to Libya a few weeks ago. A few weeks previously the commission had been preceded by a visit by its director. On returning to New York, the director said, "Well, of course, it is important that we draw up a constitution for Libya, but in my investigation of Libya, I find that we have to do more than that. It has neither national or international civil service nor trained, professional people who could make a government work. Therefore, it is going to be necessary for us to assist that country by providing all sorts of technical help in the field of government so that when the stamp of nationhood is placed upon these newly-emerging people two years hence, they will be able to carry the burden."

All around the world there is this urge toward independence—an urge that is both understandable and desirable. But as soon as the cloak of independence has been placed upon a given people, a second responsibility emerges, namely, to assist that people in the direction of a proper discharge of its international responsibilities, as a partner in a world community.

Then there is another aspect closely related to that of the emergence of colonial people—the implementation of Chapter 11 of the Charter—a bill of rights, indeed, for colonial peoples, now carried into effect by the Trusteeship Council through special arrangements within the United Nations in relation to its powers of supervision.

I want to say further that the United Nations has also developed in the last two years its International Decla-

ration of Human Rights, which will stand in history beside the Magna Carta and the Declaration of Independence.

Like those great documents in the human drama, this International Declaration of Human Rights is not a law but a source of law—and more important than that, it is a great moral commitment to which men may rally. Already millions of copies of the International Declaration of Human Rights have been printed and circulated. In a few more years it will be printed not in the thirty languages in which it appears at the present time, but in ninety. Hundreds of millions of copies will be available instead of the several millions which have been printed thus far.

Now what about this Declaration of Human Rights in relation to the world in which we live? Let me say that in the aftermath of World War II, there was, indeed, a spread of pessimism over the world which has not yet vanished. There is very much of it, indeed. When the Lord came down to earth in "The Green Pastures," He found humanity, you remember, "doggone sinful." Well, humanity *is* doggone sinful; and the cynicism that followed World War II is a cynicism, as the Vice-President said in Washington the other night, which, if one more war would be allowed to break over humanity, would be so deep and so complete as to make impossible the resurrection of any effort to produce another international organization.

We have to be careful with our own minds, do we not? We have to be careful and guard against an excessive pessimism, or an excessive cynicism. And one of the happy auguries of the fact that we are still human beings capable of making decisions and of moving in the direction of a pattern of life which is constructive, strong,

and progressive, is the fact that the nations of the world were able to meet around the council table and draw up in the days following the war the International Bill of Human Rights. That declaration points up the rights that the various peoples of the world feel man possesses: political, personal, social, and economic.

While this International Bill of Human Rights is a measure of man's protest against his own pessimism and cynicism, and at the same time, of his own agreement as to the rights which the human being possesses, it is also, at the same moment, an indication of the fact that we in turn must accept responsibilities.

Now, in our kind of a world there is a vast amount of concern about what is happening to us rather than about what we are doing. This obviously means that we become negative; we become frustrated; we become tools; we become objects; we become ends; and we become the docile instruments in the hands of other people.

We must admit now that there are certain people who tragically become involved in situations where their primary concern at the moment must be with what is happening to them. Prisoners of war, people caught in the trap of war and in all sorts of human, manmade disasters, for the moment must spend their time with the question, "What is going to happen to us?"

But there are extraordinarily glorious exceptions. One of the members of my staff is a person who was a prisoner

of war. He spent two years in solitary confinement, subject to being shot at any moment. Then he spent eighteen months in Buchenwald. I have often talked to him about that experience. He regards it as the most glorious in his life. He was one of the exceptions. He had a right to spend all of his time thinking about what was going to happen to him; instead, he spent his time not in thinking about his personal disaster, but in experiencing a spiritual and intellectual reawakening in his own life which has made him a much more powerful person today than he otherwise might have been.

Therefore, all along the line it is necessary for humanity to recognize, and especially those who are strong or who can be strong, that while events may overwhelm us, it is our responsibility to see that we help to shape events. It is our responsibility in the United Nations to see that we help shape events, and that we do not succumb to the current waves of pessimism and despair, to the kind of cynicism that easily encompasses the whole of the human family in the face of great threats and in the midst of destructive events.

It should be our purpose in life to see that each of us makes such a contribution as will enable us to say that we, individually and collectively, are a part of the *answer* to the world problem, and not part of the problem itself,

And so all of us, in whatever station of life we may be, must be a part of the answer and not a part of the problem of world peace.

I. EDUCATION AT THE MID-CENTURY: AN APPRAISAL OF ITS STATUS¹

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AS YOUR Chairman has said in introducing me, labor has more than a casual interest in our public school system; and as one who feels very strongly about our democratic traditions, both in the general area of citizen activities and in the field of democratic trade union activities, I know how basic is the whole problem of education in the development of understanding of issues and the training of leadership to the very life of those democratic practices so basic to us as citizens and so basic to us in all the areas of our activity at this mid-century point.

Labor hasn't "just arrived" in the sense of having suddenly awakened to its concern about education. A very long time ago we know that when labor had its very early beginnings it was concerned with the development of an adequate education system in order to make possible the widest participation in the activities of our democracy. And so, very early in American trade union history labor groups have been on record and have advocated an expanded school system which was more adequately financed and more adequately staffed and had available to it the kind of physical resources that were equal to its responsibilities.

John Dewey, one of America's most distinguished educators, said recently that we are at a turning point in the race between education and catas-

trophe. At this mid-century point we have available to us resources that no generation has ever had. There may have been some justification in past years for certain shortcomings in our democratic society in so far as having resources available to them is concerned. It cannot be said now that we do not have available resources adequate to provide every individual within our country with the fullest educational opportunities.

We just haven't insisted, as citizens in this society of ours, that those resources which are here in our society be made available directly to the schools whose immediate responsibility it is to provide that opportunity. We have available to us 50 percent of the whole world's productive capacity, and only 8 percent of the world's population. If with all of these vast resources, all of which are required to provide the kind of abundant living and the kind of individual opportunity, the opportunity for educational as well as cultural development—if we have all of this wealth at our disposal as citizens in the American democracy, but with only 8 percent of the world's population, what chance does the rest of the world have for security and for abundance and for educational opportunity if in the United States, with all these resources, we fall so far short of our immediate needs?

Only a brief time is available to me this afternoon, and I should like to make what small contribution I can to an appraisal of our present education system by confining myself to four specific points. And, of course, as we appraise our schools we must do so in

¹ Delivered before the First General Session of the Association in Chicago, March 23, 1950, as the first of two appraisals of the present status of education. The speaker represented organized labor.

This is a stenotyped report of Mr. Reuther's address.

terms of the facilities and the resources that are now available to mankind in this democracy of ours at this mid-century point. And I should like briefly to confine myself to these four questions:

1. The question of our physical facilities that are available to our school system; our buildings, our equipment; the availability of an adequate supply of qualified teachers.

2. The question of the cost of education, and whether or not that cost is equitably distributed, and what might be done to increase the financial resources and make them available to our schools.

3. The question of the status of our teachers in regard to their legitimate concern with their salaries—their inadequate salaries.

4. The question of academic freedom, and, in the view of a great many who are now members of labor, whether or not our schools today are training our students and our citizens realistically in terms of what today's current problems are, and whether or not we are meeting our responsibilities in that field to a democratic society that is as much challenged today as it was during the war years.

I came across a statement recently, by Mr. Benjamin Fine, the education editor of the *New York Times*, who estimated that we needed, immediately, an increased expenditure of some five billion dollars in the education field to meet our current, immediate needs, as far as minimum standards are concerned, without regard to anticipated needs.

I understand, further, that there is an increase of approximately a million students a year in our public schools, and that our supply of teachers is lagging far behind what is our actual need.

I understand that the NEA, in a

recent report, indicated that within the next ten years we shall need more than 100,000 elementary teachers a year; and yet we are currently training them at the rate of but 20,000 a year; that is, 20,000 a year are being graduated as teachers. If we don't meet this problem we certainly cannot look forward with any great degree of optimism to meeting our present crisis as far as the size of our classroom units is concerned.

I come from a very modern industrial community, which was the arsenal of our democracy, I understand—from Detroit—and which ought to be an arsenal in the world-wide effort for peace as well. But even in that great industrial center, with all of our resources that are now flooding the world with its products, we have several elementary grades crowded into one classroom. In many places, I understand, many teachers are handling classes on the basis of emergency certification who have not had the proper training that an instructor ought to have. Further, I am told that out of some twenty million elementary students, thirteen million are being taught by teachers who have had less than full college training—thirteen million out of twenty million!

As far as physical facilities are concerned, I don't believe there is any moral justification at all for a nation as advanced as the United States, with all of its natural resources, with all of its tremendous productive capacity, with its skilled labor, and with the moral responsibility for leadership which it now has in the world, to lack those necessary physical facilities.

If we could mobilize our resources to defeat the physical enemy on the other side of the world, can we say that we are baffled by our lack of physical school space or of equipment, or that we cannot reach our responsibilities

in terms of a training program to provide our children with an adequate supply of qualified teachers?

I think one of the reasons why we are in this situation is because we live in a competitive society. We are reminded of that on every hand. And if that is true, then those who have the responsibility of being educators must be practical enough to live up to that responsibility and see to it that in this competitive society the education needs of our children—and of our democracy—are not sold short. If that means knuckling down to the very hard and practical and simple political actions that are necessary to win a more adequate budget for our school system, then it is the responsibility of educators to provide the initial leadership in setting a more adequate goal, not merely to accept the status quo, that is to say, the present inadequate proportion of our total national expenditure, as reasonable.

We shall never reach our present minimum needs, let alone expand our school system to what it ought to be, unless we are prepared to make the fight for more adequate distribution of our national income so that education is not left on the short end.

I would like to say a few words about why I believe that there is at present an inadequate supply of qualified school teachers.

In the automobile factories of this country, and in a great many other sections of our American industry, individuals without benefit of college training, girls who go into the factory and after no more than two or three weeks of break-in or on-the-job training, command both a weekly and an annual income greater than that of many, many schoolteachers who have years of college training. (Of course, one conclusion I would draw is that perhaps the teachers ought to have a

good union; and in that regard, may I, as a member of the C.I.O., put in a good plug for an A. F. of L. union, the American Federation of Teachers.)

All of the money that is needed to put our schools on a sound basis doesn't come out of thin air, as all of you know. It comes in great part out of our tax dollars; and, of course, you are aware that there is great pressure to keep taxes down, keep them as low as possible, as though there were some strange virtue in being able to show you have low taxes. There is no virtue in it unless, of course, you are getting all of the services that you want as citizens.

But if our schools, in order to meet their responsibilities, need greater income—and obviously they do—and if it has to come out of the tax dollar, then we have to have higher taxes; and as a trade unionist who has at times some pretty rough-and-tumble political experiences, I think that our trade union people are quite prepared to face that issue head-on. Because, as you know, we don't do too badly as citizens in this country in terms of getting services for our tax dollars. Oh, we may gripe and complain occasionally, but by and large, through our taxes, we do much better in bargaining for services than we do as individuals going out to buy certain services.

Why, I pay more for heat, light, cooking fuel, and for telephone than it costs me as a taxpayer to educate my three children and to secure such adult educational services my wife or I may choose to take advantage of, and police and fire protection, health and sanitation services, lighting and repairing our streets, a very cheap water supply, and sewage disposal. All of that put together costs me less, as a citizen than I am now paying, on an individual bargaining basis, for heat, light, cooking fuel, and telephone.

So, it really isn't too bad if we can enlarge our services from our tax dollars. It isn't really too bad to advocate increasing our taxes, provided, of course, that we are sufficiently organized to see to it that there is an equitable distribution, in terms of our needs as participants in a democratic society, of those tax dollars. So, I, as one citizen, am not greatly frightened by these oft-repeated statements that if we advocate such a distribution that we will open wide the door to a welfare state. A welfare state doesn't sound bad to me, because at this mid-century point it is about time that states be devoted to the welfare of their people.

That does not necessarily mean, of course, putting all of us on an exactly equal economic footing. It does not mean, of course, that we are all going to be on a glorified relief program. But it does mean that it is legitimate for citizens in a democratic society to use the democratic channels that are available to it at the state and national level.

And so I agree with President Conant of Harvard who said at a recent meeting of our National Commission on Public Schools, which I had the privilege recently of joining, "One must consider every separate school in terms of the neighborhood which it serves, but let me insert a warning note: politically and educationally, the community is the unit, but not financially. There are relatively few cities or towns today which have sufficient tax resources to finance adequate modern schools. The taxing power of the state must be involved. State aid must supplement local taxes. In some of the poorer states, I am convinced we must go still farther afield and bring in the taxing power of the Federal Government."

Unless we are prepared to do what Dr. Conant proposes, we shall never be able to discharge our democratic responsibility of providing adequate

and equal educational opportunity to all American citizens, and to all children of American citizens, whether they are born in the South, whether they are born or live in a small rural environment, or whether they reside in a great industrial community.

No one at this mid-century point can justify the kind of differential where in one part of the United States \$67.00 per child per year is spent on meeting its educational needs in contrast with New York, which I believe is the highest, where \$260.00 is so spent. And I believe if we are to face up to our responsibilities on that issue of at least reducing to a minimum, if not completely wiping out, that great differential—the enormous gap which now exists in the educational opportunities of some citizens as compared with others—we are certainly going to have to use, to a much greater degree, the taxing power of our state and our federal government to bring up to higher minimum standards the educational facilities and opportunities of the depressed areas.

I have already said a little about teachers' pay. There is a lot more I could say about it; but I am sure you are as aware of that, if not more so, than I am.

I would like to say a few things about the question of the status of the teacher as a citizen in our democracy.

I sense a very dangerous trend that is taking place in our school system, where impartiality becomes a virtue; where school-teachers are not supposed to have any real convictions that they are free to express; that any matter that is controversial, the school and the teachers must stay out of. And I feel that one of the reasons is that for them to do otherwise might jeopardize, in some way, the schools' efforts to secure increased facilities and increased funds.

I don't quite see how a school system can discharge its heavy responsibility of building within the individuals who are enrolled in the schools, a real spirit of academic freedom and a desire to participate in the life of the community once they leave the school unless the teacher demonstrates that he or she individually enjoys that right. And I believe that our school-teachers must demonstrate that right not only in the classrooms, but out in the community as well, for there is no single arm that is available to us in a democratic society that is more basic to safeguarding and extending our freedom and our liberty than the school system. It is reasonable, it seems to me, and it is necessary, that the school system provide direction and leadership not only to the children in the schools, but to the community as well. I am inclined to believe that you will agree that all of our communities need some guidance and some leadership on very crucial issues that are fundamental.

To what extent are our schools today meeting the needs of our school children? Well, I would certainly be remiss in my responsibilities, and I certainly would not do justice to my own deep feelings, if I did not say that our schools have done a good job, by and large, in helping us to train for leadership and in creating an awareness of what are our problems.

But I do think that in large measure there are some traditional attitudes that are hampering the schools. For instance, to too great an extent our high-school programs are designed to meet the needs not of all of the students but of a minority of them who expect eventually to go on to college. Now I hope some day before very long this great, rich country of ours can make available to all of our citizens a college education. But I dare say it

will be some time yet before we do that since only a bare majority of our school children now manage just to get through high school.

Perhaps with a great many steps that are being taken to make more equitable the income and economic standing of our different economic groups within the country we will, of course, improve the chances of the children of workers to finally get to college; but there is no justification, as far as I can see, for forcing 70 percent of our high-school students to go through courses and classes for which they will really have no basic need, because they don't expect to go to college. I do not believe that it would jeopardize the interests of those who eventually expect to go to college if there were enough flexibility in the high-school curriculum to make available the kind of courses that will best equip the 70 percent to live the kind of lives that we know they will live anyway as members of the lowest income economic groups.

And I should hope that our schools could perhaps take advantage of the findings of a study made not so long ago which was both very significant and very revealing to me in that it pointed out that even the kind of mandatory high school courses for those who expect to get into college do not necessarily provide the best kind of pre-college training.

This study was made by Mr. Freeman Butts of Teachers College, Columbia University, and was entitled, *A Cultural History of Education*. The significant thing that I found in the report was that here was a broad attack upon the problem to see if high-school graduates of progressive schools could do as well in college as did graduates of traditional schools who met the usual college-entrance requirements. Furthermore, in some of the

thirty schools that were liberated from the so-called traditional requirements, programs ranging from broad-fields and problems type of approach to an experience curriculum centered in some enduring interest, need, or vocational objective of individual students. In short, the thirty schools taught what they thought all students needed for college, whether they were being prepared for college or not.

Their graduates who went to college—some without mathematics, some without science, some without English courses, but all with some sort of broad educational academic or vocational experience—did somewhat better in college than traditional school graduates, against whom they were paired on the basis of age, sex, race, intelligence, scholastic achievement, and economic and social background.

I know from a good deal of personal experience that the children of workers in our industries and our mines and mills are frequently forced to take courses which have very little practical relationship to the kind of jobs they will have in their after-school years. And if, based upon the general income of our people today, it is beyond the reach of 70 percent of high-school students to go on to college, then certainly we have the responsibility of putting greater emphasis on vocational training and other matters that are more pertinent to the kind of actual life they will lead.

I should like to add that I believe that we have a responsibility—a greater responsibility than that which we are now meeting—to deal with the financial stability of large numbers of our high-school students, who are unable to go to college because they lack the wherewithal to do so. I don't believe that this question can be adequately handled on the basis that we are now using in dealing with it.

There is a great deal more that I would like to say, but before I close I shall say just a few words about another aspect of our educational needs which may not be of immediate interest or concern to those of you who are teaching in our high schools; but I do believe that it is of great interest to those of you who are associated with the colleges and universities. I refer to the adult education needs, and particularly to worker education needs, of millions of our factory and shop workers.

Educational needs do not end with graduation; and with the development of a very large democratic trade-union movement there has grown great interest in extending educational classes into the whole field of worker education.

It has been considered legitimate for universities and colleges to offer special courses to prepare people for the professions; to train engineers for industry; to train doctors and lawyers, and other professionals in a great many fields, but it is a rare university that has an adequate training program to prepare people for leadership in the field of labor activities.

Labor is here to stay, and if we expect labor to play an increasingly larger role in our society—a responsible role—then I believe we ought to make available to factory workers through their trade-union organizations, greater resources in the field of worker education than are now provided. At least we ought to set up training programs comparable to that which the farmers have enjoyed for some time through agricultural extension services.

Legislation is now pending in Washington that represents initial steps in that direction; and I hope that all of you who are so concerned, not only because of your immediate occupation as instructors, but as citizens, with the need for offering greater educational

opportunities will be aware of the significance of this educational activity in a new area, and will give real support to it.

I have spent considerable time in the last few years with people overseas, and I have sensed their great need for aid from the United States. We are meeting, in good part, their most crucial need in the physical sense, with foodstuffs, raw materials, machinery; but I think the people throughout the whole world need something besides food and machinery from us. They need some moral leadership—some guidance and direction of a very courageous nature.

I believe that if we are to be equal to the position of leadership which World War II has left us in, then we dare not go on, year after year, remaining silent, as we have in large measure, on the very crucial question of providing a school budget which is adequate to meet our immediate needs. And I believe that those who feel as strongly as I know you do, ought not to be a party to selling our children short, but ought to make a fight; and if that means a political fight, if it means carrying an issue such as greater taxation to the citizens and taxpayers of this country, then we have a moral

responsibility to make that fight.

We have resources that are tremendous. Why, the total cost of education in the United States is infinitesimal compared to what our expenditures in the military field are, and are rather small compared to our expenditures for foreign aid. Certainly, with the resources that we have today we can meet our immediate needs and take the necessary steps to meet the increasing needs of the future.

While no one person can speak for all labor—and I don't presume to—and while in the final analysis labor does not differ from any other segment of a community, by virtue of the fact that it is now organized it has a manner of speaking out boldly and clearly on issues which it didn't have before. I can assure you that the members of the organized labor movement have not only a very deep concern with the whole problem of education and what its needs are, but are also prepared to do more than just talk about it. They are prepared to join with you, and others, as citizens to face up now to our responsibility as citizens, as a country as a whole, and take those necessary, practical steps that are required to meet our obligations to our children and to democracy.

II. EDUCATION AT THE MID-CENTURY: AN APPRAISAL OF ITS PRESENT STATUS¹

IVAN L. WILLIS

Vice President of Industrial Relations, International Harvester Company, Chicago, Illinois

FIRST, let me tell you how pleased I am to have the opportunity of meeting with this group of educators this afternoon. Everyone in the United States should be proud of the educational system we have and of the fine men and women in our schools and colleges. Right at the start, I want to make it clear that I, for one, find far more to praise than to criticize and could use a great deal more than my allotted time in giving my appraisal of the excellent achievements of our educational institutions.

When we contemplate an "appraisal" in industry, we think in terms of authorizing a competent and qualified individual or group to make a critical analysis of a facility, product, and market to determine their value in relationship to an over-all objective. I can assume that I have been "authorized" to make an appraisal of the present status of education because you were kind enough to invite me to discuss the subject with you this afternoon. But when it comes to being "competent and qualified," I appear before you with timidity and humility.

There is no need to devote time to an appraisal of the physical facilities of our schools, for we are on common ground there and have common problems. Obsolescence is as much a problem with us as it is with you. Money for new buildings and improved equipment is a mutual headache. As you struggle to meet the varying loads imposed by a constantly shifting birth

rate, we tackle the problem of shifting customer demands and keeping up with or ahead of competition. Colleges nearly broke out at the seams to absorb the returned veterans, while we were straining to meet unprecedented postwar consumer demands for products. In spite of all our struggles, the quality of our product suffered as did the quality of your work during that period. We can now well afford to make an appraisal of "quality." Vast hordes of students turned out of our schools without quality education can undermine our democracy as surely as mass production of tractors, trucks, refrigerators and farm implements without high quality can send the Harvester Company down the road to bankruptcy.

I want to direct my remarks to three main subjects. First, judging by the young people we employ, does our educational system meet the needs of these people as individuals and are they equipped to meet the needs of industry? Second, is education adequately meeting the need for adult education? Then, third, I'll step off into the blue and give you my appraisal of whether or not the kind of training and education teachers are receiving best equips them to fulfill their rôle of leadership in a democracy.

Before discussing these three points, let me call your attention to my opening statement that an appraisal is made in relationship to an over-all objective. In a recent interview, President-elect Griswold of Yale gave a much better down-to-earth objective for education than I might formulate. It is not, he said, "a quantitative body of memorized knowledge salted away

¹ Delivered before the First General Session of the Association in Chicago, March 23, 1950, as the second of two appraisals of the present status of education. The speaker represented industry.

in a card file. It is a taste for knowledge. A taste for philosophy, if you will. A capacity to explore. To question. To perceive relationships between fields of knowledge and experience. . . . " I want my attempt at an appraisal in the education field to be viewed in its relationship to over-all objectives such as these.

First, then, what do we in industry think of your product? Judged by the young people we employ, does our educational system meet the needs of these people as individuals and are they equipped to meet the needs of industry? A broad and general answer must give credit to our educational system for turning out one of the best products you will find in the world today, considering the great mass of youth going through our schools. From the standpoint of the utility of their education in preparing them to earn a living, we can, by proper selection, fill our needs for mechanical skills from the secondary and trade schools, and for technical skills from our colleges and universities. If anything were to be said on the minus side, it would be that schools may be attempting to go too far in teaching specific skills at the expense of broad cultural, mechanical, and technical knowledge. From the standpoint of the utility of their education, those fit in best who have the broadest possible foundation. Companies can and should pick up where schools leave off and provide the more specific training that is needed to meet their individual requirements. To generalize my experience in employing people over the past twenty years, I would conclude that the more an individual's life in school has been pointed in the direction of specific mechanical or technical skills, the less taste he has for knowledge, the less capacity to explore, and the less his ability to perceive a relationship be-

tween fields of knowledge and experience. In industry we would far rather employ those who have had a broad education.

From the standpoint of our educational system meeting the individual needs of our youth, I am in a constant state of dissatisfaction. Please don't misunderstand such a blunt remark. In Harvester we are trying to make the best product we know how to make, but we are constantly searching for new and better products and new and better ways of making them. We are never satisfied. Many of our leading educators and schools are aware of and are trying to solve a similar problem. They are searching for ways to give our youth the direction and guidance that will enable them to adjust their inner personal life to the social, political and economic environment they have to meet. But in the shift that has taken place in our schools in the past twenty or thirty years from emphasis on the fundamentals taught in the first quarter of the present century to the socially useful objectives, I sometimes wonder whether our youth has been more confused than helped. How well I remember when I returned to college right after the First World War, we had a professor who led his classes into exploring the virtues of the philosophy of Karl Marx and Lenin. He was as adroit as many are today in instilling socialistic ideas and leading students to question the fundamental soundness of our American way of life. As a result, he turned out some students who were so confused and maladjusted that some of them to this day are fit subjects for a psychiatrist. In my judgement, this professor was neither educated nor an educator, for he failed utterly in the final step of teaching the relationship between fields of knowledge and the experience over the centuries with various forms of government.

For the last quarter of a century, there has been an increasing tendency, it seems to me, to consider a growing number of subjects as exact sciences. Mathematics probably is the most exact of the sciences, followed by physics and chemistry, with all the others in descending order until we come to the so-called social sciences of the present day. I am disturbed, at times, by the plausible theories being taught by some of our teachers as scientific, social, or economic facts. In contrast, I remember that great teacher of chemistry I had in this small college. He had only a B.S. degree—it was many years later before he had a Ph.D.—but how careful he was not to confuse laws and hypotheses. He taught us to explore and to question. I gave the correct answer in his class one day and he then asked me how I knew it was so. I answered, “because it said so in the text book.” Like a flash he said, “I suppose if the book told you to go stand on your head in the corner, you’d do it.” I’m quite sure a present-day psychologist would be horrified by such a technique. But I am eternally grateful to that teacher for impressing upon me, then and there, that just because you see it in print or hear it stated by someone, it is not necessarily a fact, and that knowledge must be related to experiences, both past and present, to be of real value in life.

Turning now to my second point—Is education adequately meeting the needs for adult education? Here we have a common responsibility. It is as much our job in industry as it is yours in the secondary schools and colleges. Adult education in industry is only a part of a much larger national problem, and time is running out on all of us. The dangers threatening our individual and national freedoms may not wait for the next generation. Many of the

problems facing us today must be met with a mature knowledge and understanding that needs rapid dissemination among our adult population. In just a few years, Henry Ford moved from a small shop to mass production, and soon the moving assembly line became the symbol of luxuries becoming the necessities of life. But in thirty years we have not yet solved all the social and economic repercussions of that transition. The middle thirties saw the rapid spread of industrial unionism in our mines and factories, and fifteen years later we saw the entire steel industry paralyzed by a strike last fall. Then the coal strike led this country to the brink of chaos this winter. And still we have no solution. The problem of adult education is a growing rather than a diminishing one. In Harvester, we recognize that an educated employee is better integrated and more effective. Therefore, you might be interested in some of the things we are doing to meet our share of this responsibility.

Immediately after the war, Harvester management realized the need for greatly expanding our educational facilities. A better understanding of the problems ahead was imperative for our production and sales supervisory organization. Attitudes needed to be changed, and that is an educational as well as a training job. So all of our scattered training and educational activities were centralized under the direction of a single head. A central school was obtained, capable of handling two hundred adult students at a time. Counsel of leading experts in the field of adult education was sought. And we wound up, instead of hiring a single expert in adult education, in hiring a university.

A five-year contract was entered into with the University of Chicago. The company agreed to pay the University

\$25,000 a year for five years and, in return, the University, in effect, put its entire staff at the company's disposal. The University is only incidentally concerned with course content. Emphasis is placed upon developing with the company an integrated, long range program of adult education. We wanted to develop a program that would increase a feeling of unity in the organization, develop individuals in the company for responsible positions, contribute to a better understanding of the human relations problems of industry, and give our supervisors and dealers a fuller concept of our place in the postwar social and economic order.

The University, in turn, obtained the opportunity to cooperate in the formulation of objectives, development of instructional methods, and the measurement of the achievement of the objectives made possible by the educational plan of a large industrial organization. Before long the University will be publishing the results of several research projects made possible by this mutual cooperation of an educational institution and a company.

Our limited time will not enable me to give you the whole picture. We are now in the final year of our cooperative project. Over ten thousand men and women have attended the school to date for periods varying from one to six weeks. They leave their daily job responsibilities behind them during this period. They live in a hotel here in Chicago and spend a full eight hours per day in attendance at the school. The instructional staff, with one or two exceptions, are all full-time Harvester employees. Most of them are not professionally trained educators but come from operating jobs to teach a year or two, or even a class or two, in the school and then move back to operating jobs. It is not nearly as much a training project as it is an educational

one, designed to broaden men's horizons. Actual training in policies and procedures is still carried on at the manufacturing Works, and training in sales techniques is mostly done out in the field. If you are interested, you would be a welcome visitor at our central school. Or if you want more complete details of the project, a note to my office will bring you such printed material as is available.

While on the subject of adult education and cooperation with educational institutions, you may also be interested in another educational project of Harvester's known as the "Off-Hours Educational Program." Mr. Fowler McCormick, Chairman of our Board of Directors, had the conviction that industry should also offer factory employees an opportunity for fuller personal development. So several years ago this program was instituted. If about twenty or more employees, or their wives, at any Works are interested in taking any subject, the company will provide, without cost to the employees, a classroom, an instructor, and the necessary equipment. Last year we had 4,796 complete more than fifty different courses ranging all the way from interior decorating, dressmaking, home carpentry, and photography to algebra, economics, welding, and mechanical drawing. Approximately half of these courses had no relationship to actual jobs in the company. They were simply self-improvement or hobby courses. Some classes are held right after working hours in classrooms available at the Works, with instructors drawn from among our own personnel. If no qualified instructor is available within the company, we hire one from the local schools or colleges. Wherever possible, we avoid direct duplication of educational programs for adults already available in the area and always try to keep our employees informed of

any other educational programs available in the community. Our experiments in this field of adult education lead me to believe that here is an area in which industry and educational institutions together can achieve much more than has been accomplished to date.

We have a number of other adult educational programs in Harvester, ranging from trade apprenticeship courses to the Progressive Students Course, designed for select college graduates and non-college personnel of exceptional ability.

There is one other experimental program we started last summer and will again carry out this year that I think should be included in our appraisal. We in Harvester are endeavoring to bring about a better understanding between industry and professors in our educational institutions. Last summer, at the suggestion of our president, Mr. McCaffrey, we invited six universities and colleges to send one professor each to us for a month at our expense. During their first two weeks they stayed together, and the group first spent hours with Mr. McCormick and Mr. McCaffrey discussing the structure of our company, our policies, and operating problems. These gentlemen made it clear to them that all doors were open and that we had no secrets. They were free to delve into every phase of our business. They attended the regular Council meetings where the top executive group discusses engineering, manufacturing, sales and financial problems of the company. They happened to be with us when, among other things, we had to discuss a new product that had gone out by hundreds to our customers and failed to stand up under field conditions. But their presence did not deter our top management from exposing our costly mistakes. The group also spent sufficient time with the depart-

ment heads of all major functions to get a clear picture of our various activities.

Then the last two weeks each was on his own to delve into any particular phase of the business that was of special interest to him. Of the six professors, two were mechanical engineers, one an expert in farm management, one was interested in educational methods, one was an economist, and one a statistician. Before the professors left, they again met with our executive group and gave us their impressions of the everyday functioning of the company and recommendations for improving our operations.

This next summer we are inviting ten schools to participate in a similar program. We realize that the number we can reach is a drop in the bucket, but to the extent we can, we want to have a better understanding of the problems faced by our college and university professors and for them to have a better understanding of us.

Now I come to my third major point where I launch off into the blue. I said I would give you my appraisal of whether or not the kind of training and education teachers are receiving best equips them to fulfill their role of leadership in a democracy.

I taught in high schools six years after graduating from college. My temporary teacher's certificate was good for one year in the first state, so I moved on. I extended it to three years in the second state by taking a completely empty and inadequate short course in agriculture required by state law in this instance. In the third state I taught on a temporary certificate for two years, then quit and went into industry. College debts, a wife and two children kept me from going to the inevitable teachers college for summer courses necessary to qualify for a permanent certificate. So put me

down as a case of sour grapes, if you choose.

But, in all seriousness, my appraisal of the present status of teacher training and teacher education leads me to the conclusion that we are not meeting the real needs of today. You may well ask me why I make such a statement. I support it on two main points. First, as I've said before, too much is being taught as proven fact that belongs in the realm of conjecture, hypothesis, vague theories, and wishful but distorted thinking. It indicates that some teachers are leading classroom discussions on subjects in which they have erroneous, incomplete, or virtually no factual information. If you doubt my statement, conduct a survey of your teaching staffs. Ask such questions as:

- (1) What is the average percent of profit of all United States corporations?
- (2) What are the main distinguishing differences between American and European capitalism?
- (3) Do you consider the Taft-Hartley Law to be a "slave labor" act and, if so, why?
- (4) What is done by the government with the funds collected from employes and employers under Social Security?

These are just a few of the questions grade school, high school, and, in some cases, even college graduates give completely distorted answers to, based upon classroom discussions led by uninformed or misinformed teachers.

Second, some teachers, either because they have no real concept of education or because of their enthusiasm to create the questioning mind, turn out the confused mind rather than the complete individual who has a thirst for knowledge, a questioning mind, and, above all, the ability to relate knowledge to experience. I've talked with young people whose educational and home backgrounds have led them to question our American way of life and form of government. They can talk glibly about the virtues of

socialism or its first cousin, communism, but haven't the faintest idea about the rise and decline of the Amana colony. They know nothing about the rise and decline of socialism in New Zealand and whether it made everyone richer or poorer and whether it protected or destroyed individual freedoms and incentives for self-improvement. If all our youth are to be properly guided in their development, all our teachers need to have the stability, intellectual stature, and breadth of knowledge to rise above the slogans of this period—slogans that are in themselves quite moral objectives, such as "two cars in every garage and a chicken in every pot," "the fair deal," and free enterprise."

To meet these problems, I propose some modifications in the teacher training and education program. But let me make it clear that I propose nothing that will in any way destroy academic freedom. I firmly believe that freedom is indivisible. If you lose your academic freedom, industry will lose its system of free competitive enterprise and labor will lose its right to organize and bargain collectively. Where else will freedom of thought and opinion survive if teachers, who should be our intellectual leaders, lose their freedom? But I do believe some changes can be introduced that will give us more teachers who will be happier in their jobs and broader in their knowledge and understanding.

1. First, in secondary and grade schools, I would remove the pressure forcing many teachers to spend their vacations going to summer school to take *credit* courses in order to get permanent teacher certificates or enhance their professional standing. I would include in this all courses relating to teacher training, such as audio-visual education and other teaching methods courses whether they are taken for

credit to receive certificates or to enhance professional standing. Instead, I would bring these courses from the summer schools right into the local school system during the regular school term and give them tuition-free to the teachers that need or want them. Further, if accredited principals, superintendents, or specially qualified instructors are not available, I would put sufficient pressure on teachers colleges, etc., to make them send out on a circuit the necessary teachers wherever they were needed. In any event, by making necessary arrangements with colleges, successful completion of these "on the job" courses should be as duly accredited toward degrees as if they were taken at some college during the summer.

I think it would accomplish four things. It would enable the teacher who, because of financial needs, has started teaching without a permanent certificate or a degree to acquire one without the expense of going to summer school, and, in the end, would often retain a good teacher in the school who might otherwise leave. Then, it would broaden the coverage because many would take these "on the job" courses who would not go away to summer school. Next, training on the job or at the site of the job offers more opportunities for laboratory work and the training can be better adapted to the needs of the school. And, finally, it will leave more teachers free during the summer to participate in the next program I am going to suggest.

2. My second suggestion also ties in with credit toward degrees, as well as professional advancement. Let colleges embark upon an accredited summer school program that will broaden not only the knowledge of professors but also of all public school teachers who enroll in the program. It will require the cooperation of industry,

government, unions, and perhaps other elements in our society.

Let us assume you are a representative from a small college or university and can organize one or several classes of twenty each. Take the class to the nearest city, whether it is Des Moines, Waterloo, St. Louis, Chicago, or your home town. Divide the class into units of four or five each and schedule each unit to spend one or more weeks with a business institution, whether it is a manufacturing company, an insurance company, or whatever, and arrange for them to get the same insight into the business as we endeavored to give our visiting professors last summer. Let each unit spend a week with the city government, from the mayor's office to the traffic policeman and from the budget director to the relief administrator. Let the group spend a week with a labor union, let them attend union meetings, and visit a picket line if a strike is in progress. Schedule them for a week with the newspaper, from the editors to the police reporter, and from the composing room to the newsboy. I don't want you to think I'm concerned only with a practical education. Have the groups spend a few days, not a two-hour tour, in any available art museums, science museums, or other cultural institutions and have group study and discussion of the arts. Then, by written and oral checks, determine whether they have gained enough to entitle them to credit toward a degree or improved professional status.

It is one thing to sit in an ivory tower and read about manufacturing, government, unions, the dissemination of news, and the arts. But it is quite another form of education to be, for a while at least, a part of the human stream that struggles with the day-to-day problems of running a factory, administering a city relief program,

organizing a union, meeting a deadline with the news, or selecting and displaying art that will bring cultural advantages to the mass of people. My guess is that such an experience would be a broadening and happy one in education. It should lead to more inspired teaching and much broader factual knowledge; it should enable teachers to better relate knowledge to experience; and it should surely merit credit toward advancement as much as, or more than, many of the summer school courses our teachers are now taking.

Early in my talk I outlined the three main points I wanted to discuss with you. May I summarize as follows:

First, my appraisal of the present status of education is that your schools are doing as good or better a job than the best done in the world today, considering the magnitude of your prob-

lems. They are furnishing industry with fine material, but we do prefer the broad basic education rather than too much emphasis on perishable skills. Also, some youth come out of school with the idea that some things are facts which, in my opinion, are still in other realms.

Second, as I appraise adult education today, I think we both have a big job to do. We have barely scratched the surface, and there is room for increasing cooperation between education and industry in this important field.

Then, third, I went out in the blue in my appraisal of teacher training and teacher education that I can best summarize by saying we all should be searching for ways and means of improving our product and of building a better understanding among all elements of our social order.

HOW CAN HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES AGREE ON A PLAN FOR COLLEGE ADMISSION REGARDLESS OF THE PATTERN OF HIGH SCHOOL OFFERINGS?

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THROUGHOUT the United States the relationship between high school and college on the admission of students is for the most part governed by a blanket covenant. Under the terms of this covenant the college agrees it will admit the graduates of certain high schools when they have pursued certain sequences of study, and when, in addition, these graduates have proved their mettle by certain other trials and measures. There are other schemes, of course, but this has long been the generally prevailing arrangement, and it still prevails.

This covenant is supported by both parties, the colleges and the secondary schools. Under it the colleges are given a voice in the determination of the preparatory program, and because they have a natural concern about the quality of their intake, and because they feel that this system of admission has given them freshmen not badly prepared for the opportunities and ordeals of college life, they do not find fault with it. As for the secondary schools, they have generally assented uncomplainingly to the arrangement, and sometimes they support it in a very hearty spirit. Thus a majority of both parties have appeared to be satisfied with the transaction.

But in spite of the large measure of satisfaction with the standardized secondary curriculum aimed at college preparation, there have been strong dissenting expressions both within educational circles and outside. The objectors have not disputed the advantages of standardization and accreditation during the formative years of the secondary school. But they have argued

that new times required a broadening of the secondary school curriculum and a freeing of local administration in order that all needs of students might be met without the inhibiting influences of external controls. These doubters have nourished and strengthened their misgivings and convictions on a broadening flow of research findings, which almost without inconsistency have shown that the pattern of courses of a student's high school program is neither a determiner nor a conditioner of his college success. The curriculum policies recommended by the Educational Policies Commission and by the American Youth Commission have been based on the assumptions of the dissenters rather than upon those of the traditionalists. Both logical criticism and research data have tended to stress the need for a new formula of relationships between college and secondary school.

Compare the conventional system with another in which every high school graduate is immediately cast adrift, and must put forward his own pretensions to admission and make his own terms with the college, and the conventional method is seen to be greatly superior from the standpoint of simplicity and convenience. It simplifies the admission problems of the college to the extent that the high school takes them over. And the accredited high school, quite apart from the advantage it enjoys of being able to display a certificate testifying to its respectability in college circles, has its own simplifications also. By virtue of necessity the high school has acquired a set of rules about many matters of student guidance. In the majority of cases

these rules have proved not unsatisfactory, though it should be pointed out that at the same time the high school has been supplied with a too ready "yea" and "nay" for the settlement of the constant flow of deeply personal and otherwise baffling problems of its students.

I am dealing today with only one provision of this covenant. It is the stipulation that some pattern of high school courses must have been pursued by the high school graduate as a prerequisite to his unconditional admission into college. It is my purpose and theme to argue that such a rule of admission is not the best, and that its educational, administrative, and political shortcomings outweigh its advantages. I propose, moreover, to argue that it is unnecessary to have such a rule. For there is a superior alternative, which I shall presently describe, an alternative which has been welcomed by all the parties concerned, and most especially by the colleges, wherever it has been adopted. I shall go on to say that our experience in Michigan, what there has been of it, has already given support to our proposition that a good high school can do a better job with all its students, and as good a job with its college-minded students, when it is freed from an adventitious preoccupation with rules about the courses that students must take to qualify them for college admission. And I hope to show, *passim*, that the repeal of this rule may have healthy consequences, by putting the authority over the program of the high school student where the responsibility is anyway, that is to say with the secondary school faculty. I express the belief that its repeal may have the effect of animating and invigorating local leadership in secondary education, with measureless benevolent effects upon the cultural life and health of the local community,

whose secondary school ought to be its most powerful engine of cultural progress.

Indeed I have a conviction, which I hope you share to some degree, that there is something in this business of high school accreditation more deeply rooted and fundamental than a willingness to conform to agreed-upon rules. I believe that universal secondary education thrusts upon the high school faculty the endless duty of making of particular judgments to fit particular cases; that the accreditation process should take account both of the gravities of dealing with groups and the niceties of dealing with the individual; and that if a high school is good enough to merit accreditation, it should *ipso facto* be good enough to be able to make its own decisions about the kinds of educational diet that are best for all of its students. I believe, too, that the high school will make these cardinal decisions better if it does not lie under the menace of disapprobation by distant and higher-level institutions. I believe, in short, that a school should be accredited according to its general excellence, and that its accreditation should be made with a clear understanding by all parties that in the determination of the individual programs of students it is the local secondary school that must have the supreme power of decision.

That is the thread of the argument I offer you. I do not intend to labor it. To weary you with obvious examples would abuse your patience, for you too have been thinking about these things. You have heard a good deal, for example, about whether the colleges want to govern our high schools or even lay strong hands upon them. In the state of Michigan the colleges do not want anything of the kind. To be sure, Michigan has high schools that keep looking with reverence toward the colleges for

their orientation. We have many famous colleges in Michigan and indeed throughout the Middle West. Their guidance has been and is most helpful in our unfolding program of secondary education. Our Michigan college people, on their part, try, in all decency, when invited, to give the best advice they can to our community high schools. The college people realize that our public secondary schools are doing their level best to become life-centered community institutions. I believe this notion of the community high school has made its way as far in college circles as it has among the secondary school people themselves, and perhaps even further. I think, too, that as these community high schools which discharge their community responsibility wisely multiply in number and demonstrate their worth on a broadening scale, the list of doubters in college circles, as elsewhere, will shrink to petty proportions.

And then, too, I have heard it argued that the admission of students to college is not the business of the high school—that it is the college's own affair. That is not the Michigan view. We see the other side of the shield as well. We think it is the concern of the high school that its graduates should bear themselves with credit and honor wherever they may go, whether they make their way into college or elsewhere. As well argue that the exodus of high school graduates into industry or business or domestic service or idleness is no concern of the high school. Of course, it is their concern. College admission is now the concern of the high school, and with the broadening of college enrollment and opportunity this concern will intensify year by year.

And I am sure that no one, in Michigan or elsewhere, believes that when you have stocked a mind with polite

learning you have created a college student. Secondary education is not that simple. Nor can college competence be reduced to these narrow dimensions. For when you have counted and cataloged the courses a student has taken in high school and have tested out the percentile bracket into which he falls among his fellows, you still have not taken his measure as a person nor even as a college person. That you know something about him is not to be denied. But there are other features of his personality which it has been the duty of the high school to cultivate and which are of equally anxious concern to the college to which he presents himself. How ample is his mind? How tenacious is his purpose? How lofty are his ambitions? What is his mettle? Lift him out of the routine of his present educational environment and take him away from the sanctuary of his home and friends and throw him into a vortex of distractions. What kind of a scholar and person will he be then? The high school must deal with these hard questions in connection with all its students, college and non-college alike.

Of course it does not follow that these supreme matters in the education of our youth are neglected. Every first-class school does its best to turn out a balanced and well-rounded individual. But when the high school is placed under special injunctions about this course or that, a succession of evils may ensue, all arising from the displacement of a cardinal local responsibility. What has impressed us in Michigan is that the development of first-class educational opportunity on a broad scale depends upon the multiplication of public secondary schools which combine excellence and a full sense of responsibility for the education of all. We began more than a decade ago to test out the theory of

whether a superior community high school, free to follow its own impulses about educational matters, would rise on its own initiative to higher levels of excellence. In most cases where the matter has been tested, our community schools have responded reassuringly to the challenge.

I propose now to tell you something of our Michigan developments over the last thirteen years as they bear on the question assigned to me: "How can high schools and colleges agree on a plan for college admission regardless of the pattern of high school offerings?"

Such issues as I have discussed have been filling the minds of our Michigan college and secondary school family for many years, along with an urge to come to grips with the problem and to try to contrive a better secondary school-college relationship for dealing with it.

In 1937 we set in motion a comprehensive inquiry, which bore the name of the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum. It was begun for the avowed purpose of helping the "communities, the schools, and the people to study themselves and to develop points of view in planning and utilizing effective, democratic ways of working at the improvement of the community's program of education." No sooner had the Study begun than it was sensed that college entrance requirements constituted a barrier to the making of changes in the curricula of the secondary schools. Whether the difficulty was real or imaginary is not the point; there was an obstacle which all perceived. Accordingly a treaty was signed by fifty-five selected secondary schools and almost the entire family of colleges and universities in the state. The text of the treaty reads as follows:

... (college) ... agrees to admit graduates of schools included in the Michigan Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum in terms of its adopted standards of admission but without

reference to the pattern of subjects which they have pursued, provided they are recommended by the school from among the more able students in the graduating class. It is our understanding that this agreement includes graduates of the schools in the years 1940 through 1950.

The experience of the Michigan Secondary Study, begun in 1937 with a life expectancy of twelve years, has from one standpoint at least been fruitful. It has brought a creative energy into Michigan secondary education to a degree previously unknown. I gather the general impression from reports I have read and comments I have heard that the college output of these schools was not adversely affected by the new-found freedom which the high schools enjoyed. Mainly, however, the fruits of the experiment were not manifested in any deflection in the field of college preparations. The more conspicuous results appeared in the impact of unfolding local initiative upon the far greater proportion of students whose formal education ended with the high school. Not all the secondary schools took full advantage of their opportunities, nor was this disappointment unforeseen. But to many high school faculties and student bodies there came a sense of release from external restraints, which found expression in stirring adventures in secondary education, many of which survive to this day.

As the Michigan Secondary Study drew nearer to the end of its course, a good many of our college and secondary school people began to wonder how some of its more dynamic features could be continued. A Joint Commission on High School-College Relations was consequently formed in 1945. It was made up equally of representatives of the Michigan College Association and of the Michigan Secondary School Association, which is the principals' group in our state. Late in 1946

the Commission produced a statement of a new agreement which, in due course, was officially endorsed by both parent bodies. The text of the new Agreement is as follows:

MICHIGAN SECONDARY SCHOOL-COLLEGE
AGREEMENT

1. It is proposed that this Agreement be extended to include any accredited high school whose staff will make the commitments noted below in Section Two. The Agreement is as follows:

"The college agrees to disregard the pattern of subjects pursued in considering for admission the graduates of selected accredited high schools, provided they are recommended by the school from among the more able students in the graduating class. This agreement does not imply that students must be admitted to certain college courses or curricula for which they cannot give evidence of adequate preparation."

Secondary schools are urged to make available such basic courses as provide a necessary preparation for entering technical, industrial or professional curricula. It is recommended further that colleges provide accelerated programs of preparation for specialized college curricula for those graduates who are unable to secure such preparatory training in high school.

2. High Schools which seek to be governed by this agreement shall assume responsibility for and shall furnish evidence that they are initiating and continuing such procedures as the following:
 - a. A program involving the building of an adequate personal file about each student, including testing data of various kinds, anecdotal records, personality inventories, achievement samples, etc. The high school staff will assume responsibility for developing a summary of these personnel data for submission to the college.
 - b. A basic curriculum study and evaluation of the purposes and program of the secondary school.
 - c. Procedures for continuous follow-up of former pupils.
 - d. A continuous program of information and orientation throughout the high school course regarding the nature and requirements of certain occupations and specialized college courses. During the senior year, to devote special emphasis to the occupation or college of the pupil's choice.
3. It is further recommended that a joint com-

mittee be established to study applications of new schools and to recommend certain of these schools to colleges for inclusion in the agreement; also to determine from time to time whether the criteria have been met in the schools on the list. This joint committee would include three representatives from the Michigan Secondary School Association, four from the Michigan College Association, and one from the Department of Public Instruction and the Department of Superintendents of the Michigan Education Association; representatives to be appointed by the executive officer of each organization and the representatives of the Michigan College Association to represent different types of member institutions. The joint committee would be served by a part-time staff supplied from three sources: the Bureau of Cooperation of the University of Michigan, the Department of Public Instruction, and the Inservice Committees of various Michigan colleges and universities.

4. It is understood that high schools which cannot or will not make and observe the above commitments (See Section Two) will continue to employ the major and minor sequences for those students who wish to attend college.

The admission of schools to the program started in May, 1947. As of today, 37 Michigan colleges, 13 Michigan schools of nursing, and 116 Michigan high schools are signatories. About 80 percent of the high schools are members of the North Central Association.

Let us now take a look at the mechanism behind the Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement, and consider some of the problems involved in its administration. The central machinery consists of a committee of nine. This committee decided at the outset that any high school accredited by the University of Michigan which was ready seriously to assume its obligations of carrying out the four conditions ought to be admitted. The application from the high school might be simply a letter indicating what the school was doing or proposed to do under each of the four conditions. The Committee has found it desirable to review these letters carefully for evi-

dences of cooperative planning, of support by the board of education, of support by the faculty in general, and of community understanding. The Committee decided it should refrain from imposing stereotyped experimentation. In the induction of new high schools into the program and in its review of their intentions, the Committee decided, wisely I believe, to use the light touch.

Soon a new and heart-warming development occurred which was unforeseen by the Committee. In various parts of the state, as the numbers grew, the schools formed themselves into area associations. The first area group originated in and around Detroit, and now all of the state is covered by five such associations. They came into being spontaneously, and all of them are pressing forward on their common problems with high schools and colleges in full partnership. They have working committees. They produce newsletters. They help each other through conferences. They engage in a free exchange of ideas; on such matters as involve the statewide institutions and the Department of Public Instruction they act in concert.¹

At risk of giving you unnecessary detail I want to comment on the conference method which is in common use by these area associations of College Agreement schools and colleges. The conferences are usually held at one of our numerous winterized camps. Here the teachers work earnestly. They come to know each other better through the informal and recreational activities which are a part of every conference program. Participants at these conferences are likely to comprise teams of teachers and administrators, representatives of the colleges and univer-

sities, consultants from the Department of Public Instruction and elsewhere, sometimes high school students, frequently teachers from other areas who have been experimenting with something new, and occasionally visitors from outside the state.

The question must be answered: Are the schools really making good changes in their programs as a result of this already far-ranging activity? Are they really doing a better job of meeting the needs of all youth? I think they are. To be sure, the developments do not generally appear to be revolutionary in character, but after all we do not have to suppose that everything we have been doing in secondary education is wrong. Certainly the cooperative approach to secondary education has received a powerful forward impulse. United action by teachers, administrators, communities, students, and the colleges is increasing swiftly and reassuringly. The schools, or at any rate a large proportion of them, are moving in the direction of the general goals of Life Adjustment Education, and to that extent they are becoming yearly more serviceable in the realization of the ideal of equal secondary educational opportunity for all.

Formidable problems remain unsolved, as is always the case where such a venture is in its early stages. But all are pressing forward. We encourage research, the constructive association of the secondary schools with agencies having like interests, the development of colorful and effective leadership, the improvement of curriculum and guidance through such scientific processes as can be found, and the search for more certainty in the evaluation of results. These efforts of ours suggest the character of the difficulties we all discern, and they may suggest, too, that we are attempting to grapple with

¹ Copies of many of their printed materials can be obtained from Dr. Leon S. Waskin, Department of Public Instruction, Lansing, Michigan.

some of the important and vexatious riddles which beset secondary education throughout America.

I come now to the conclusion. If the high schools and the colleges of any state want to contrive a plan of college admission that does not place the accent on a pattern of high school offerings, they can do so. As you know, it has been done again and again. I feel that the state is the most manageable and feasible unit for going forward at the present time. Although we must all acknowledge the useful pioneering efforts that were made on a nationwide scale by the Progressive Education Association in its Eight-Year Study. It has been done in California. It has been done in Ohio. It has been done in Michigan, where efforts are going forward in an intensifying and broadening flow. It should be done by consensus. It is not a problem in which the high schools are exclusively interested. It is not a matter of sole concern to the colleges. We are in this thing together, and in our dealing with it we must be all for all.

I think the issue is vital. Local control of our community school systems is a certain way to push back the perils that have closed in on many unhappy nations and peoples in our lifetime. Of course, we must recognize that when

we loosen the ties that bind our high schools to larger agencies, the circumstance presents dangers as well as opportunities. When things go well, there is no limit to the excellence that can be attained in community education, but if things go badly, and the high schools neglect or misuse their freedom, then the American principle of local administration and control of local institutions will sustain a reverse.

As in so many other American departures in business, in technology, and in government, in this we are again breaking with European precedent. Our American educational tradition is largely unique and indigenous. Unlike the student bodies in European secondary schools, ours represent the full cross section of the people. Our schools are neither selective nor eliminative. All may come and all do come. And our high school programs, unlike so many of their counterparts in Europe, have not yet ripened or congealed. In all this effort to make the secondary school a powerful, creative force in American life, we are breaking new ground; and all who have a part in the effort, animated with the adventurous American spirit, are bringing us step by step nearer to the kind of America we want.

WHAT CAN EDUCATORS DO ABOUT THE HOOVER COMMISSION RECOMMENDATIONS?¹

ARTHUR S. FLEMING

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THE Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government, of which former President Hoover was the Chairman, has completed its work. It has filed with the Congress nineteen reports containing approximately three hundred recommendations to substitute efficiency for inefficiency in the conduct of the affairs of government.

The Hoover Commission was assisted in its work by a large group of outstanding citizens who served as members of approximately twenty-five study groups or task forces. Each one of these task forces made a thorough study of a major area of government. Each task force brought to light examples of inefficiency in the operation of the Executive Branch of the government. Each task force made recommendations designed to correct the conditions which were brought to light by its study.

The Commission, after careful consideration of these recommendations accepted some, decided to reject others, and in still other instances decided to include recommendations which it felt had been overlooked by the task forces.

If the inefficiency which was brought to light by these task force reports is eliminated, Mr. Hoover, the Chairman of the Commission, has estimated that over a period of time it will result in annual savings in excess of from three to four billions of dollars a year. If such savings could be realized, there is no doubt but that our total economy would be strengthened.

In addition to these direct savings,

however, the carrying out of the Commission's recommendations would make a further contribution to the strengthening of our economy by eliminating the additional costs which it is necessary for the citizen to assume whenever he is called upon to deal with an inefficient government.

Finally, if these recommendations are accepted, we will make marked progress in the direction of fixing responsibility for mismanagement of the Executive Branch of the Federal government in whatever form it may express itself.

Clearly these are desirable objectives. But how do we go about reaching these objectives? In this talk it would be impossible, obviously, to even attempt to list all of the specific recommendations which the Hoover Commission has made and which the members of the Commission feel will help the nation to achieve these objectives.

It is possible, however, to isolate one of the themes which runs through all of the reports which the Hoover Commission has filed with the Congress. It is also possible to see how this theme can be applied to specific situations in the interest of meeting the challenge which inefficient operations within the Executive Branch of the Federal government brings to every thoughtful citizen. Here is the theme:

1. We must fix responsibility in a definite and clear-cut manner for the discharge of the various duties and responsibilities which have been assigned to the Executive Branch of the Federal government.
2. We must give those to whom responsibility is assigned sufficient authority to act so that they can discharge their responsibilities in an effective and efficient manner.

¹ Read before the Commission on Secondary Schools at Chicago, March 22, 1950.

3. We must establish controls which will ensure that those to whom authority to act is delegated adhere to standards established by the Congress and by the President.

Now let us see how the Commission applied these three points of this theme to specific situations in the Executive Branch of the Federal government.

The very first recommendation which the Commission made to the Congress of the United States provides us with a good example of the application of the theme. In this first recommendation the Commission asked the Congress to delegate to the President of the United States authority to work out reorganization plans with the understanding that these plans would become effective sixty days after their submission to the Congress of the United States, unless within the sixty-day period both Houses of Congress vetoed the plans.

In other words, the Commission recommended to the Congress that it should place on the President of the United States the responsibility for keeping the organizational structure of the Executive Branch up to date. Then, in addition, the Commission suggested that the President should be given sufficient authority to act so that he could really do an effective and efficient job. Finally, the Commission suggested that Congress should have the opportunity of taking a look at the President's reorganizational proposals before they were put into effect in order to make sure that there had been general adherence to whatever standards Congress felt should be kept in mind at a particular time.

There is nothing static about this problem of organizing the Executive Branch of the government in such a manner as to make sure that it can carry on its work in an efficient and economical manner. If our government is to be kept up to date, the President

must be given the responsibility for keeping it up to date and, at the same time, he must be provided with sufficient authority so that he can really do a good job.

The Congress has accepted a modified form of this recommendation. The law which has been passed differs from the original recommendation in that it provides that one House of Congress can veto, by a constitutional majority, the President's reorganization proposals. It also provides that the President's authority to submit plans will lapse on April 1, 1953, although the Commission recommended that the grant of authority should not have any time limit attached to it.

As a result of being granted this authority, the President submitted seven reorganization plans to the first session of the 81st Congress. Six of these plans are now in effect. All of the plans were consistent with the recommendations of the Hoover Commission.

Just a few days ago the President submitted twenty-one additional plans to the present session of Congress. All of these plans are consistent with the recommendations of the Hoover Commission.

Many of the plans submitted are designed to correct situations under which it is virtually impossible for anyone to really hold the head of a department or agency responsible for what happens in connection with some of the operations within his department. For example, six of the plans provide for transferring to the heads of six Cabinet departments functions and powers now conferred on subordinate officials. Seven of the plans fix responsibility for day to day administration of seven of the major regulatory boards and commissions in the hands of the chairman of these commissions.

In all of these plans the President is

saying that if we are to have an economical, efficient, and responsible government, we must fix responsibility at certain points and then we must give the person to whom responsibility is assigned sufficient authority to act so that he can carry on his work effectively and efficiently.

The Commission's report on "The National Security Organization" provides us with another good illustration of the application of this theme.

The information provided the Commission by the task force which carried on studies in this particular area showed very clearly that, from a management point of view, the National Security Organization, as of that time, was in a chaotic condition. This conclusion on the part of the Commission's task force and the Commission's concurrence in it was in no sense of the word a reflection on the administration of the Office of Secretary of Defense by the late Mr. Forrestal. In the judgment of the Commission he had done an amazingly fine job under very difficult conditions and circumstances.

The situation has, however, a very definite reflection on the way in which the job itself was established. Responsibility for the administration of our armed services was assigned to the Secretary of Defense in name but not in fact. The Secretaries of the Army, Navy, and Air Forces were left in a position where they had considerable authority to act, as undoubtedly they should have, but where they did not receive this authority to act from the Secretary of Defense but directly from the Congress. In fact, under the law as it was written at that time, they were given the right, whenever they disagreed with the decisions of the Secretary of Defense, to go around him to the Director of the Budget, to the President, or to the Congress.

As a result of the conditions which

were brought to light by its task force, the Commission decided to make certain recommendations which, if they were put into operation, would be far-reaching in their effects.

The Commission recommended in its report to the Congress that complete responsibility for carrying forward the work of the Army, Navy, and Air Force should be vested in the Secretary of Defense. It also recommended that he should be put in a position where he would be the person who would decide to what extent authority should be delegated to the Secretaries of the Army, Navy, and Air Force. It stands to reason, of course, that any Secretary of Defense, with a clear understanding of the principles of management, will delegate considerable authority to act to the three Secretaries.

The Commission's recommendations also made it perfectly clear that the Secretary of Defense should be given the ultimate responsibility for dealing with problems in the fields of budgetary administration and personnel administration within the Army, Navy, and Air Force.

The Commission's recommendations in the area of National Defense have been accepted by the Congress and the President.

As a result, the present Secretary of Defense, acting under the authority conferred on him by the Congress, has brought about the discharge of 157,000 civilian employees of the Army, the Navy, and the Air Force. This action represents savings for the present fiscal year of three hundred millions of dollars and for the next fiscal year of half a billion dollars.

Also, the Department of National Defense is asking for \$1,200,000,000 less for the coming fiscal year than it has available during the present fiscal year.

It begins to look as though the testimony of the chairman of our Commission, Mr. Hoover, to the effect that if all of our recommendations in this area were put into operation it would result in annual savings of approximately one and a half billion, is in the process of being vindicated.

The activities of the Executive Branch of the Federal government in connection with the development of the water resources of this country provide another excellent example of the application of the theme to which we have been referring.

Reports from various task forces indicated very clearly that, as of the present time, that section of the Army Engineers having responsibility for the development of rivers and harbors and the Bureau of Reclamation of the Department of Interior are engaged in a disastrous type of competition for the taxpayer's dollar.

This is an area in which we have spent and in which we are planning to spend large sums of money. If one takes into consideration the projects which are now under way, those that are in the planning stage, and those that have been classified as feasible, it is apparent at once that we are dealing with an operation calling for the possible expenditure of over fifty billions of dollars. And even these figures are conservative. There has been a noticeable trend in this particular area in the direction of estimating that a project will cost, for example, fifty million dollars. Then, after the project is well under way, the agency responsible for its construction calls attention to the fact that unforeseen developments will make it necessary to spend an additional twenty-five million or fifty million dollars, as the case may be. Congress is then confronted with a situation where it is necessary for it to decide whether to let the project stand as an

incompleted project or to provide the funds necessary to complete it. Naturally, this problem is almost always solved by providing the additional funds. Therefore, if our past experiences in this particular area are projected into the future, it becomes clear that we are probably talking about considerably more than fifty billions of dollars.

The competition between the Army Engineers and the Bureau of Reclamation is a disastrous one from a number of points of view. There is no doubt at all but that the competition at times results in an unnecessary expenditure of public funds. Also, there is no question at all but that as a result of the competition projects are often carried through to completion in order to take care of one kind of problem, such as irrigation, for example, when, if there had been some over-all planning, flood control and water power problems could have been solved at the same time.

Most of the members of the Commission felt that there was just one way in which to deal with this unhealthy and disastrous type of competition. Most of us believe that it is imperative to telescope the activities of the Army Engineers which are connected with river and harbor development and the activities of the Bureau of Reclamation of the Department of Interior. A majority of the Commission including the Chairman of the Commission, felt that this telescoped activity should be placed under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior. Some of the members of the Commission felt that it should be placed in a new Department of Natural Resources. Both groups, however, were in agreement on the fact that responsibility for the development of the water resources of this country should be centered at one spot and that the Cabinet

officer in question should be given sufficient authority to act so that he could do an effective and efficient job.

The Commission also felt that an independent board should be established in the executive office of the President, made up of persons of unquestioned standing in the field of public works, who would have the responsibility for passing on proposed projects and who would be in a position where they could submit independent reports of their findings to the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, to the President, and to the Congress of the United States.

Now let us turn to another area for a specific illustration of the manner in which the Commission applied the theme to which we have been referring.

At the present time the Army, the Navy, the Public Health Service, and the Veterans Administration all have some responsibility for the administration of hospitals which are owned and operated by the Federal government. The Commission's task force report on the health and medical field indicates very clearly that this divided responsibility creates a situation which is costly and which at the same time fails to provide those who, under the law have a right to call on the Federal government for hospital service, with as high a quality of service as should be provided.

The task force in this area brought out, for example, the fact that in Houston, Texas, a hospital was built during the war by the Navy in order to take care of the mentally ill. There was some understanding to the effect that after the war this particular hospital would be turned over to the Veterans Administration. When the war was over, however, it was apparently decided not to turn the hospital over to the Veterans Administration; consequently, the Veterans Administration sought and

obtained authorization for the construction of another hospital almost immediately adjacent to the Navy hospital, for taking care of the mentally ill. At the time the Commission's task force was conducting its study, it discovered that since the war on an average, only one-seventh of the beds in the Navy hospital at Houston, Texas, had been occupied. In spite of this fact, however, the government was in the process of getting ready to build another hospital to care for identically the same kind of patients.

When this and other similar facts involving other proposed hospitals were brought to the attention of the President, he issued instructions which resulted in cutting out of the 1949-50 budget proposed expenditures for new hospitals totaling somewhere between 280 million dollars and 300 million dollars.

Not only, however, does the present situation result in a waste of public funds, but it also means that the Federal government, in connection with the administration of its hospitals, is not making the fullest possible utilization of the professional personnel available to it for hospital work.

In order to correct these and other situations brought to light by the task force, the Commission recommended to the Congress that there should be brought into existence a United Medical Administration. This administration would, among other things, have responsibility for the administration in this country of the hospitals which are now under the direction of the Army, the Navy, the Public Health Service, and the Veterans Administration. The Administrator of this United Medical Administration would have responsibility for making sure that the government makes maximum utilization of its existing resources in this field and he would be given sufficient authority

to act so that he could do an effective and an efficient job.

And so once again the Commission asked the Congress to fix responsibility and at the same time asked the Congress to give the public official to whom the responsibility would be assigned sufficient authority to act so that he could carry on his work in an adequate and effective manner.

So much for one of the principal themes running through all nineteen reports of the Hoover Commission.

There are those who question the desirability of placing as much responsibility as is called for by these recommendations in the hands of a single individual or a small group of individuals.

In the Commission's introductory statement to the first report, we anticipated this kind of an objection. And here is what we had to say about it:

An energetic and unified executive is not a threat to free and responsible government. . . . Strength and unity in an executive make clear who is responsible for faults in administration and thus enable the legislature better to enforce accountability to the people.

As a result of my own experiences in the Executive Branch of the government, I subscribe wholeheartedly to that statement. I am a firm believer in our system of checks and balances. At the present time, however, it is not possible for the legislature to check in an effective manner on what is happening within the Executive Branch. Let something go wrong in the Executive Branch of the government and let a Congressional Committee try to fix responsibility and it will soon become apparent that fixing responsibility in many instances is like hunting for a needle in a haystack.

When one considers that we are dealing with a government which spends from forty to forty-five billion dollars a year, that we are dealing with a govern-

ment which alone finds it necessary to employ more than two million civilians, and when one considers that we are dealing with a government which has been assigned duties and responsibilities which are so complex as to defy the imagination of most of us, it is obviously more important than ever for us to put ourselves in a position where we can fix responsibility when things go wrong.

If the recommendations which we have made to the Congress are put into effect, there is no question but that substantial savings will be effected. Also, if these recommendations are put into effect, there is no question but that the Executive Branch will be able to carry on its work in a far more efficient manner than is the case at the present time.

Also, however, if these recommendations are put into effect, there is no question but that we will have a far more responsible type of government than we have at the present time.

What are the chances?

Up to the present time from 20 to 25 percent of the total number of recommendations have been put into operation. If the reorganization proposals submitted to the Congress by the President a few days ago are adopted, it will mean that another 20 percent of the recommendations will be in effect. What about the remaining 50 to 60 percent of the recommendations?

Personally, I am optimistic. I am optimistic partly because of the fact that back of the recommendations of the Hoover Commission is a National Citizens Committee on the Hoover Report, made up of outstanding leaders from the Democratic Party and the Republican Party, and also made up of outstanding leaders from the ranks of labor, management, agriculture, and other walks of life.

This National Committee, under the chairmanship of Dr. Robert L. Johnson, the President of Temple University, has already done an outstanding job in rallying public support behind the recommendations of the Commission.

I am optimistic also because of the fact that in many states a state Citizens Committee on The Hoover Report is being organized to give help and support to the National Committee.

I am also optimistic because national organizations such as the Junior Chambers of Commerce are putting all of their resources into a program designed to develop an understanding of and appreciation for these recommendations.

Educators can be of tremendous help to us in the carrying forward of this program. They are in a position where, in their own organizations they can do everything possible to persuade their members to become acquainted with these recommendations.

Also, in many instances, educators are utilizing the recommendations of the Hoover Commission as a basis for

classroom discussion. These discussions are bound to carry back to the home and are sure to help in creating a truly intelligent interest in the implications of the program which the Hoover Commission has placed before the nation.

Just a few weeks ago I was talking with Mr. Hoover about the status of our recommendations. As I was leaving he said, "Well, we are in for a battle on some of these recommendations. I have been involved in a good many battles in my lifetime and some of them I haven't enjoyed too much. This, however is the kind of a battle *I* like."

I believe that Mr. Hoover also expressed the point of view of the citizens of this country. This is the kind of a battle that *we* like. We are willing to enlist in a crusade which has for its objective greater economy in government, greater efficiency in government, and providing us with a more responsible type of government.

As educators, let's do everything we possibly can to persuade the Federal government to put its house in order from a management point of view.

IMPLICATIONS OF LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION FOR HIGH SCHOOL-COLLEGE RELATIONS¹

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WHAT is Life Adjustment Education? It is essential that we clarify our thinking at the outset. At the risk of being trite for some, and repetitious to many, I wish to recall with you the significant highlights of Life Adjustment Education.

In the strictest sense it is not a program. It does not suggest a new pattern. It does not offer a new philosophy. It is rather a *united effort* to find ways and means of closing the gap between our *educational theory and our practice*.

Its source is significant to its aim and spirit. If you will accept a simplified version, it was about as follows. With the closing of the war years the vocational education people spent a year and a half in a careful, intensive study of the future, entitled "Vocational Education in the Years Ahead." Their findings were frustrating.

As educators we have long given lip service to the objective of secondary education for *all* the children of *all* the people. Yet they were faced with the cold statistical fact that *fifty-five* out of each *one hundred* youngsters who started to school did not graduate from high school.

Likewise, they were aware that the national employment demand for students trained in vocational education absorbed only approximately 20 percent of youth; that is, regardless of the number which might be so trained, occupational opportunity to them was limited.

They were also aware that the national average for those who were going on to college represented ap-

proximately another 20 percent of youth. This indicated that approximately 40 percent of youth could profit by a form of specialized training, that is, the college preparatory or the vocational education. They also found that many schools were doing a very acceptable service in one or both of these phases of specialized training. However, of that great group of youth who could not thrive on such specialized training, or could not compete for employment after being so trained, the typical high school offered very meager fare. Roughly 60 percent of youth were not receiving adequate training. Further, any specialized training which these people needed was usually of short duration and could be most satisfactorily given on the job. These facts made it evident to the vocational education people that the *primary* function of the typical high school, *in terms of numbers to be served* in educating *all* youth, is not that of *specialized education*.

At about the time of their study, newspapers and periodicals were carrying news reports and feature stories on such problems as (1) the large number of rejections of draftees for World War II, (2) the unusual divorce rate, (3) employment instability due to the inability of people to get along with one another, and (4) the rising incidence of unsocial behavior in general. Fairly, or otherwise, the educational system was frequently being severely criticized for not helping in the solution of these problems. The emphasis of fact and criticism was not one of vocational inadequacy but of unsocial behavior. Young people from all eco-

¹ Read before the Commission on Secondary Schools at Chicago, March 22, 1950.

conomic brackets, and of various educational experience and background, were failing in activities common to all youth regardless of vocational goal.

Another fact which loomed large in the news at that time was the tremendous increase in the population due to the unusual birth rate during the war. Statistical trends indicated that it was a short decade until two million boys and girls would be entering the secondary school.

How could secondary education plan and set its house in order to meet, within a decade, the needs of youth in increasing number in this highly interdependent, atomic age was the question at hand.

In conclusion to the vocational education people's study the well known "Prosser Resolution" called upon all leaders in secondary education to unite in an effort to provide a more adequate education for *all* youth of secondary school age. It asked the U. S. Commissioner of Education to serve as spokesman in such a move. In 1946 the U. S. Office held five regional meetings to discuss the problem. In May 1947 at a national conference called by the U. S. Office in Chicago the representative leaders petitioned the U. S. Commissioner, John W. Studebaker, to form a "national commission of life adjustment education for youth." The Commission called upon nine existing leadership organizations to appoint one member to the national commission.

The National Commission was faced with two basic facts, namely;

1. Secondary schools have not been able to attract and to hold a *majority* of youth long enough to *meet their life needs*.

2. The schools have a few short years in which to prepare for greatly increased responsibility.

The Commission did *not* see a new pattern of education as the answer to the problem. As a nation we have long talked about education for *all* youth *twelve to seventeen years of age*. Most communities have paid the secondary education bill with the hope, or misconception, that they were providing education for *all*. Neither the professional nor the lay leadership has been too aware of the failure to have done so.

A basic concept of *public* education has been that it is a community function. Deomocracy can only perpetuate itself on the basis of a literate, vigilant electorate. Dr. Thomas Brigg's apt, concise statement of the concept puts it thusly: "A community provides education as a long-term investment to assure that it will be a better place in which to live and to make a living." (1)

As we are well aware, the "community concept" is not in opposition to that of the education of the individual. Whether we like it or not, or whether we acknowledge it or not, in this highly interdependent society each of us is a social unit. However, another basic concept of democracy is that each of us is an important, unique unit—potentially a productive, creative unit of the community. Hence, Life Adjustment Education places emphasis upon "the child as the unit of adjustment." It likewise emphasizes that each community is entitled to a "tailor-made" educational program to meet its needs.

At this point of emphasis upon community pattern many will protest its soundness of logic when they project their thinking into that of the hamlet or small town with its typical high school and its limited offering. This is likely to be our first reaction to much of what Life Adjustment Education will propose within the next few years.

This compels the speaker to digress at this point and to be so bold as to

make a few personal observations. You will accuse him of whistling in the dark and right you are! Many will be the times that we screw up our courage to push through the "insurmountable" in public education within the next half century. However, if Life Adjustment Education takes on its full meaning—if it is not just another passing educational shibboleth—if we accept the challenge of the next half century for public education in our highly complex, interdependent technical world:

(1) We must have *unparalleled imagination* as to the educational resources and possibilities of our communities—and our nation.

(2) We must learn to *plan cooperatively* with lay leaders as we have seldom conceived before.

(3) We must *experiment* with a *thoroughness* and *soundness* that has not been typical.

(4) We must dare to act upon a scale that we do not now conceive.

In the spirit of these observations may I return to the problem of the community pattern for education. Perhaps the hamlet or small town community must merge into a larger unit, perhaps many nearby communities can devise a fluid cooperative program by which each can make a special contribution, or perhaps some can do, as some of our small communities in which educational opportunity became practically synonymous with community life. In any event sound planning in the face of our modern interdependent life and the mobility of our population will not permit an extensive development of narrow community patterns. Most of our cosmopolitan urban areas are equally challenging. The units are large; people are handled *en masse*.

In fact, in this complex technical era many, if not most, youth are forced into a very *artificial, non-productive* life

from ages twelve to seventeen. There is considerable current talk that all youth should be kept out of productive labor until age eighteen.

How long can we force youth fourteen to eighteen out of productive opportunity—or force them out of an educational opportunity because we have nothing to offer?

How many of these youths are forced into anti-social habits?

How many develop a retaliatory viewpoint toward their community and mankind?

How many who are untrained, or poorly trained, become socially dependent?

What is the alternative to a broad, life adjusted program for *all* youth? Shall it be larger budgets for *salvaging* social and economic misfits? Shall it be regimented youth corps or labor camps?

What is the history of the productivity and dependability of this age group? In emergencies have they not assumed almost an adult role? In our agrarian era when the nation was expanding, did they not assume a very responsible share?

How long must we continue to coddle, frustrate and treat these young people as wards of society—frequently "crippling" them for life?

How long can our democracy operate on such a social deficit basis?

We are reaching a point in our public education experience where we must "put up or shut up." We must find ways and means to educate and train *all* or cease to assume that it can be done. It cannot be done within the present patterns. It can only be partially accomplished within walls of brick and mortar. It cannot be done within the present paltry sums spent for education. However, Benjamin Fine reported in his book, *Our Children Are Cheated*, (2) that as against two billion

spent for education in 1945, we spent seven and seven-tenths billions for alcoholic beverages, three billions for tobacco and an amount equal to that of education for beauty and barber shop services and cosmetics. Add to these sums much of the spending for mental hospitals and crime, and it is quite evident that we have easily billions more for education if we have the vision and statesmanship for planning a worthy program for all youth twelve to eighteen. This is one of our most, if not the most, crucial domestic issues.

The discussion to this point makes it apparent that this is not a problem limited to professional leadership. It is a community wide problem. It requires a level of community planning now unknown. To date too many of our school-community relations have been based upon the superficial. Too often we have gone to the community with apology and asked for a minimum of assistance. Tomorrow we must insist that *all* plan and work for a program upon which the community's social, economic and political future is founded. This is community "life adjustment" if you please.

In the face of the very real limitations which surround us in secondary education much of this sounds like unrealistic chatter. There are the thousands of small schools units of two hundred or less; there are meager budgets, antiquated plants, inadequate and poorly trained staffs, and equally difficult problems. The bright counterpart to this dark side of the picture is an aroused and concerned lay leadership. We have the National Citizens Commission for Public School, led by Roy E. Larsen, president of *Time, Incorporated*, spearheading a national movement. Their executive secretary, reporting in a recent periodical, states "The Commission will constantly seek to find new ways to draw the attention

of the public to the need for *every citizen* to help improve the schools in his community. Rather than trying to encourage a vague and passive interest in the schools, the Commission will *urge* the *formation of citizen committees* to work for better schools in *every* community. It will also do what it can to facilitate the formation of state citizen committees to give direct aid to the Community organizations." (3)

It will be through cooperative representative leadership committees that we plan, discover and build adequate educational patterns for the future. There will be a period of groping, a period of trying to solve our problems within the limitations of traditional patterns. There undoubtedly will be a wave of denunciation such as found in the book entitled *And Madly Teach*, (4) and in a recent periodical article entitled, "Quackery, in the Public Schools," (5) We will probably have a general lashing out at the pinch of increased taxation, especially with the present indiscriminate governmental spending. Rough days are ahead for an expanded educational program. However, it is out of these growing pains of the community cooperative process that must come the future pattern for *all* of the children of *all* the people.

The National Commission on Life Adjustment Education calls upon all professional leadership to visualize the total program necessary to serve all youth twelve to seventeen years of age, and to unite its best efforts in discovering the best practices for realizing this goal. Following the concept that education is a function of the state, it encourages the establishment of state committees or commissions. Schools do not deal directly with the national office. Through the state setup, schools are urged to carry on experimentation and to freely exchange

workable findings. The national office serves primarily as a clearing and coordinating center for state organizations. If we can effectively unite our efforts through such an organization, we should overcome much of our professional grouping. That is, this organization extended throughout the forty-eight states can become the frame work for an extension of services and clarification of problems on a scale that we do not now conceive.

Life Adjustment Education is as broad as the needs of the youth which must be served in any community. If there must be limitations in what can be provided, the needs of the *majority* take priority. The training for life activities *common to all* take precedence over specialized forms of training.

Regardless of a child's personal goal he has much in common with all youth. Ethical and moral living and physical and mental health involve all. Fundamental skills are basic to personal goals and to satisfactory communication. Every child must be able to compute, read, listen, write and speak effectively. Every child must have adequate study and work habits.

All youth must be educated for the *common activities of life*. They must establish and maintain good homes. They must be cooperative in their relationships as employer and employee. They must be intelligent consumers and constructive producers. They must appreciate and conserve our natural and human resources. They must understand and assume their civic responsibilities—locally, nationally and internationally.

In our complex, interdependent life the content of training for these common activities can be quite comprehensive and time consuming. That is, much of their secondary school life must be given to problems and experiences that prepare them for an efficient

and satisfactory life in the common activities.

The content and experience must be in terms of the maturity of the learner. Problems of the *immediate* will probably more frequently challenge and hold interest. However, he must appreciate his heritage and what it takes to keep the social values and institutions which he has inherited. His experiences must teach him to work cooperatively, intelligently, objectively and creatively in solving problems common to all.

Since the emphasis of Life Adjustment Education is on change of practices to align with well known goals of long standing, where shall we start? How shall we start? The impatient will want revolutionary action. In terms of the pressures of the "atomic age," they may be sounder than we think, or would like to believe. Psychologically, man does not move that way, especially in the community or collective sense. Those short of vision will be satisfied to tinker. Perhaps much of the dilemma of public secondary education today is due to the tinkering of the past quarter century. The opportunists will noisily carry a banner for a partially adjusted program, and they will point to fragmentary or superficial adjustment which now exist in their organizations. These are not the answers to a wary public which now is asking questions about the product of secondary education and the wisdom of the present investment.

At this point it must also be said that there are some schools and communities which are doing some outstanding things for youth within the framework of their present limitations. It must be acknowledged that there are some excellent teachers who are giving youth remarkable guidance and help in adjusting to life—this frequently in spite

of frustrating circumstances. Many schools have excellent programs in various phases of specialized education, such as that of the college preparatory and vocational. Many can point with justifiable pride to what they are doing for a limited number of the youth which they serve.

Each school, or better said, each community must start *where it is* in terms of adjustment. A few communities have made considerable progress toward serving *all* youth. The great majority have to start with basic "spade-work." As we have attempted to emphasize to this point, one of the first problems is to develop techniques and channels for community planning and action. Local leaders, and civic, welfare and educational agencies must work together on a basis now unknown to most communities. Each teacher who is realistically willing to know the background, abilities, limitations and interests of his pupils can modify the focus of his work. As a matter of illustration, a chemistry teacher in a St. Louis County high school found the enrollment in his college preparatory chemistry shrinking to the capacity of two sections. He organized a program of practical chemistry for consumer understanding. These sections studied the merits of highly publicized soaps, detergents, paints, anti-freeze, cosmetics, *et cetera*. This program has created an enrollment that is taxing the capacity of the laboratory and is bringing some embarrassing pressure on the retention of space for the two college preparatory sections. Incidentally, the instructor reports that a surprising amount of the practical has crept into the college prep work. This illustration does not imply that there should be a breaking down of all specialized courses. For schools that can retain both, without endangering the program for the majority, the special

courses definitely have a place. Incidentally, as we well know, the focus of the specialized course can frequently be improved in terms of Twentieth Century demands and the learners' needs.

With a reasonable amount of staff and parent orientation another early modification is that of extending to *all* students of the school some of the good things which are being done in some elective courses, such as, biology, home economics, *et cetera*. These elements may become a phase of the "common learnings" or "general education" portion of the program. The successful putting together of related phases of specialized subjects into teachable wholes is not easy. We also readily agree that one of the chief hurdles in this area of modification is teacher training and experience in handling general phases of education. Regardless of these difficulties, evidence is heavily weighted in terms of the extension of general education.

The need for extended guidance and counseling services in most schools and communities is so evident that we scarcely need to do more than call it to the attention. Most schools have a nominal service; few really have an adequate service. However, may we be reminded that regardless of how effective is the service, the basic need is ample training opportunities into which to guide boys and girls of various abilities and goals.

For the more remote phases of modification for most communities, there are to be organized programs of work experience, service corps programs, school camps and other community opportunities which we do not now conceive. Such programs as that of Diversified Occupations,—Distributive Education, Vocational Agriculture and Vocational Home Economics offer pointers for extended opportunities.

We are well aware that in urban areas much remains to be done to convince labor, management and owners of the possibilities and significance of these types of training in terms of the community's future.

To date we have not recognized the possibilities of youth service corps to the civic life of a community. We have scarcely dreamed of the possibilities offered in school camping for practical experience in group living, civic training and the conservation of natural resources. With the alarming trend in the loss and waste of natural resources, what would be better to teach the appreciation of conservation, and more important, to share in the actual work of conservation, than to have teen age youngsters spend a portion of their time in state and national reserves giving their services under men adequately trained for such a dual leadership.

The suggestions for modification of the educational program for the next half century have merely been illustrative. There are many more recognized areas and patterns; there are many more to be discovered. Each community will be governed by its own resources and limitations. Each community may extend its opportunities by cooperation with adjoining communities and the state of which it is a part.

In terms of the predictions made in this discussion to this point, what shall be the college's relationship to the high school of the future—to the "community" high school, especially to that great group of small schools of enrollments of less than five hundred? Their college preparatory offerings, as college preparatory is now conceived, will of necessity be quite meager. Perhaps the basic questions become: What constitutes satisfactory college preparation? Can a program of "community" emphasis, contribute to it?

Undoubtedly, the most basic research to date on the question is that of the *Eight-Year Study*, 1932-1940. You will recall that this cooperative project included thirty high schools and three hundred colleges and universities. The high schools were well distributed through the various sections of the United States. There were large and small schools, public and private, and urban, town and rural.

You will recall that the basic purpose of the study was two-fold, namely:

1. To establish a relationship between school and college that would permit and encourage reconstruction in the secondary schools.
2. To find, through exploration and experimentation, how the high school in the United States can serve youth more effectively. (6)

You will recall that during the experimental period the customary college entrance requirements were waived. Acceptance for college entrance was based upon the principal's recommendations covering three factors, (1) the student's general intelligence for carrying on college work creditably, (2) evidence of a well-defined serious interest and purpose, and (3) that the student had demonstrated ability to work successfully in one or more fields of study in which the college offered instruction. In addition to the recommendation, there was a carefully recorded history of the student's school life and his activities and interests, including results of various types of examinations.

What were the findings of this experience which gave the student and the secondary school such unusual latitude? May I repeat them for you:

First, the graduates of the Thirty Schools were not handicapped in their college work.

Second, departures from the prescribed pattern of subjects and units did not lessen the student's readiness for the responsibilities.

Third, students from the participating schools which made most fundamental curriculum revision achieved in college distinctly higher standing

than that of students of equal ability with whom they were compared.

The report more emphatically stated in summary:

First, the assumption that preparation for the liberal arts college depends upon the study of certain prescribed subjects in the secondary school is no longer tenable.

The second major implication . . . is that secondary schools can be trusted with a greater measure of freedom than college requirements now permit.

What are more recent findings and recommendations concerning college preparation? Perhaps a very recent statement by the leaders of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program and the Illinois Life Adjustment Education Program is the most revealing. They called upon a group of representative secondary school, college and university men, known as the "Committee on Relations with Higher Institutions" to make recommendations concerning college entrance requirements. That group was headed by Dr. Ralph W. Tyler of the University of Chicago. Other collegiate institutions represented were the University of Illinois, Northwestern University, Illinois College and Illinois State Normal University.

After a careful survey of the various studies concerning college entrance requirements and what constituted adequate preparation for college, in which considerable attention was given to the findings of the Eight-Year Study just discussed, The Committee summarized its study with this statement.

All of them (the studies) show that students can develop the competencies necessary to carry on college work by taking many types of courses and content. In fact, no correlation was found, between the subjects taken by a student in high school and his success in college. His competence as a student was more closely related to his development of intellectual interests, skill in reading, writing and other study techniques, and effective work habits. This, of course, points to the desirability for establishing a high order of co-

operation between colleges and secondary schools.

The Committee then proposed to the colleges and secondary schools of Illinois the following principles:

1. The American public high school has the responsibility to develop and administer an educational program which will provide for the education for *all* youth, including both those who go on to college and those who do not.

2. With limited resources, the high school's first responsibility is to provide education of general value to all of its students, rather than to provide for the specialized needs of parts of the student-body when the latter effort is taken at the expense of a good program of general education.

3. The colleges and universities bear the responsibility of continuing the general education of high school graduates and of providing for various specialized needs appropriate for post-high school instruction.

4. Since the high school carries the responsibility for educating *all* youth, it, and not the college or university, has the responsibility of specifying the content of the high school curriculum. The colleges and the universities have an interest in obtaining competent students from the high school and the high schools need to consider the development of competent students as one of their functions.

5. The high school has the responsibility of providing colleges and universities with information about its students and in doing so enable these institutions to select prospective students wisely. (7)

As a summary for the "Implications of Life Adjustment Education for High School College Relations," I cannot improve upon the statements contained within these principles.

In conclusion: May we return to the question "Are we 'beyond the point of no return' in secondary education?"

Return to what—a narrowly defined opportunity of primarily specialized education for a *few*? That would be a comfortable "return"! Is that our answer to the next half-century?

Suppose we are beyond the point of no return. To continue the aviation parallel—what are the qualifications for flying and the flight? Aren't they

courage—heads-up navigation—and a will to set the plane down safely?

May we have the vision, the statesmanship and the daring to do likewise for public education during the next half-century.

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REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON HIGH SCHOOL- COLLEGE RELATIONS¹

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INTRODUCTION

THAT the subject of school and college relations is still very much alive is evidenced by the prominent place this subject has on our annual program and by the attendance at this joint session of the three commissions. Furthermore, recent statements in the professional journals, in the lay magazines, and in the press reveal that school and college administrators and teachers, parents, and government officials are becoming increasingly concerned with problems of preparation for college, admission to college, and successful completion of college programs for millions of our high school students.

A college education for their sons and daughters seems increasingly to be the desire of a large proportion of our adult population. A recent *Fortune* survey on Higher Education reveals that 83 percent of all people would want their sons to go to college, and 69 percent would want their daughters to attend college.²

The demand of adults for a college education for their sons and daughters is matched to a considerable degree by the demand of students themselves. Davis reports in the American Council on Education Study, *On Getting into College*, that 35 percent of the white students in the nation's high school class of 1947 wanted to go to college that fall. This comprehensive study

further reveals that the proportion of applicants from the high school class of 1947 might have been increased from 35 to 64 percent had there been no effective barriers operating to counteract the expressed interest and academic qualifications of the students.³

In developing defensible plans for admission and placement of this tremendous body of young people who are knocking at the doors of our colleges and universities, Tyler notes three weaknesses and suggests four theses which may well serve as bases for some of our discussion this evening. The first weakness refers to the observation that "most schools and colleges do not provide educational programs which facilitate the effective use of the individual's potentialities." Tyler states that "a weakness from the point of view of efficiency of instruction and rational placement of students is the lack of continuity in much school and college work." A third weakness noted in "school and college programs from the point of view of more efficient admission and placement is their lack of integration." As constructive suggestions which are pertinent to our discussions tonight, Tyler proposes three theses, quoted as follows:

1. Admission and articulation are complex tasks that cannot be adequately performed by studying the individual in a vacuum. The study must be made with reference to the functions of the educational institution, the conditions under which it operates, the limitations of choice available both to the individual and to the institu-

¹ Read at a joint session of the Commission on Secondary Schools, the Commission on Colleges and Universities, and the Commission on Research and Service at Chicago, March 22, 1950.

² Elmo Roper, "Higher Education," The Fortune Survey. Supplement, *Fortune*, September, 1949.

³ Helen E. Davis, *On Getting Into College*, a study made for the Committee on Discriminations in College Admissions. Washington: American Council on Education, 1949, pp. 26, 43.

tion, and the broad educational effects of possible procedures.

2. The facts about the individual that are most helpful in admission and articulation will vary with institutions. The necessary facts are suggested by analyses of requisite abilities, habits, knowledge, interests, attitudes, and the like.
3. Marked improvement in admission and articulation is now possible through the use of tests.
4. Better practices in admission and articulation involve better educational programs. The study of the individual should be closely integrated with the planning and conduct of the educational program.¹

From its origin the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has sought to improve the scope and character of cooperative efforts between secondary schools and colleges. The Association through its commissions and member institutions has produced an imposing list of studies and reports dealing with common educational problems. Through the gradual development and voluntary application of standards, regulations, criteria, and procedures for determining and recognizing excellence in schools and colleges the Association has promoted better teaching and learning conditions with the avowed purpose of the all-round development of boys and girls.

In recent years, however, leaders in the Association have been cognizant of the need for effecting closer, more productive working relationships between the secondary schools and colleges. Largely through the efforts of President C. W. Boardman, representatives of the Commission on Research and Service and of the Commission on Secondary Schools met during 1948 and 1949 to discuss problems of common interest. Finally, a joint meeting of the Administrative Committee of

the Commission on Secondary Schools, the Steering Committee of the Commission on Research and Service, and the Board of Review of the Commission on Colleges and Universities was held in Chicago on June 23, 1949, for the purpose of considering a proposed study of high school-college relations.

Out of these informal conferences grew a definite proposal for the appointment of a special committee to design a study. The idea was approved by the Committee on Policies and Plans, and subsequently adopted by the Executive Committee. Following instructions of the Executive Committee, President C. W. Boardman appointed a committee on high school-college relations, consisting of Norman Burns, Secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities, University of Chicago; H. G. Harmon, President of Drake University; T. H. Broad, Principal of the Daniel Webster High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma; Earl Sifert, Superintendent of the Proviso Township High School, Maywood, Illinois; and J. Andrew Holley, Oklahoma A. & M. College, as chairman. Upon the recommendation of the committee, Manning M. Pattillo, Jr., of the University of Chicago, was added to the committee.

The function of the committee on high school-college relations was to design and outline a study of high school-college relationships. To discharge this function, the committee held meetings in Kansas City and in Chicago during November and December, 1949. The preliminary report of the committee was approved by the Executive Committee of the Association on December 3, 1949, and the committee was instructed to begin phase one of the studies. Work was begun on phase one.

This brief review of the origin and work of the committee to date is in-

¹ Ralph W. Tyler, "Admission and Articulation Based on Study of the Individual," *New Directions for Measurement and Guidance*, Washington: American Council on Education, pp. 1-15.

tended to serve as a background of information for the discussion this evening. The ensuing report is an elaboration of the preliminary report which appeared in the January, 1950, issue of the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY. It is not intended as a final statement of the committee, nor is it presented as representing all of the individual views of the members of the committee. In preparing the report, however, the committee was in complete agreement as to the need for a series of studies, and as to the essential elements in the design which follows. It is expected that during the discussion period tonight will come helpful suggestions for strengthening the studies, as well as better understandings of our mutual interest and problems.

THE DESIGN FOR COOPERATIVE STUDIES OF HIGH SCHOOL-COLLEGE RELATIONS

The committee proposes that a series of related studies be initiated to improve the services that secondary and collegiate institutions render to students, particularly during the period of the upper two years of the senior high school and the first two years of the college. Problems of articulation extend beyond the few months that intervene between graduation from high school in June and matriculation in college the following September.

The committee also strongly subscribes to the view that the experiences of students should be characterized by continuity and consistency in administration, counseling, and in teaching philosophy and practice. It is further believed that there is an urgent need for a fuller development and wider utilization of student resources, which should result from improved guidance and teaching. The need for better understanding and closer, more

continuous working relationships between college and secondary school leaders in the solution of mutual problems has already been referred to. It is hoped that the proposed studies will contribute to the meeting of these needs and objectives.

The committee furthermore believes that it is more important to describe how particular colleges and secondary schools are attacking their common problems, than to attempt to set up uniform patterns and criteria for admission and articulation.

As a basis for achieving the major purposes of the studies, the committee proposes the following five-phase design.

Phase One. Define goals and problems.

Phase Two. Set up and conduct local cooperative demonstrations among selected colleges and their principal feeder secondary schools.

Phase Three. Coordinate local cooperative demonstrations and provide for exchange of information and experiences among groups concerned.

Phase Four. Evaluate and disseminate results of studies in Phases One, Two, and Three.

Phase Five. Stimulate and promote improved practices among schools and colleges.

It may be observed that while the major elements in the design are referred to as phases for purposes of analysis and emphasis, such phases should not be considered necessarily as discrete steps, one phase to be started and completed before another is begun. For example, obviously phase four, or evaluation, should start early in the studies and should be a continuous function of all major efforts.

PHASE ONE: DEFINE GOALS AND PROBLEMS

The first phase of the studies involves the determination of goals and the definition of problems. The following methods are suggested for carrying out this phase.

1. An analysis of significant literature, including a critical, systematic study of catalogs, research studies, and committee reports, as well as statements of experiences and opinions of specialists, students, administrators, teachers, and parents.
2. A careful study of on-going projects or experiments, involving groups of colleges and secondary schools in the field of school and college relations.

A systematic and critical review of the literature should indicate common educational goals and problems, as well as significant examples of progress made by particular groups of colleges and secondary schools in reaching those goals and in solving common problems.

For example, the question as to what has happened since the Eight-Year Study needs further study. Mumma reports in the January 1950 issue of the *School Review* that requirements in terms of "units" or "credits" have become considerably more flexible and liberal.¹ Other studies show that increasingly admission procedures are being modified. Entrance criteria are being defined in terms of specific traits and specific knowledge and skills, rather than in terms of amounts of specified time spent under prescribed conditions in the high school. According to Bradshaw, however, admission policies and procedures have been determined largely through tradition, competition, imitation, and vested interests, "rather than through modification and evaluation under critical conditions."²

Another question is: What have secondary schools been doing with their newly-found freedom in the way of broadening and of improving the

experiences of those students who expect to go to college, as well as of the majority who never expect to attend college? In this connection, the excellent curriculum materials produced under the direction of the Committee on Experimental Units are available and should be more widely utilized.

In the areas of guidance and teacher-education, to cite only two additional examples, committees of the Commission on Research and Service have contributed valuable studies which have many implications for improving the personnel and curriculum services of secondary schools and colleges.

A partial list of additional questions on which Phase One of the studies should shed some light are the following:

1. What are the desirable goals of colleges and secondary schools? Which goals relate specifically to improving school and college relations?
2. What are the needs of youth and how can these needs best be met through improved personnel services and curriculum materials and experiences?
3. What are the special skills, information, habits, and attitudes required for achieving successful social, emotional, and scholastic adjustment in college?
4. What are the functions and responsibilities peculiar to secondary schools and colleges in attaining the goals agreed upon?
5. What specific data concerning student's needs, interests, aptitudes, abilities, and achievements should the secondary schools furnish the colleges, and how should such data be utilized by college admissions officers, counselors, and teachers?

The committee specifically raises the question as to what the special skills, appreciations, attitudes, and interests are which are essential to preparation of students bound for college that are not also essential for all students? The view of the committee is that such special skills are few and can be mastered in a relatively short period in the latter part of the high

¹ Richard A. Mumma, "Further Modifications in College-Entrance Requirements," *School Review*, LVIII (January, 1950), 24-28.

² Francis A. Bradshaw, "Colleges and Universities—VIII. Student Personnel work—I. Admissions Procedures," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1941, p. 25.

school or during the early period of college attendance.

In the words of President Bryant Drake of Doane College: "They're not ready for college if they're not ready for life."¹ His list of requirements for college success includes such common learnings as the following: must know how to spend money; must know how to care for his health; needs social preparation; must possess ideals. He asserts that the college-bound student needs academic and intellectual preparation, including a core of learning, but that his attitude toward learning is most important.

The committee holds that preparation for constructive living and good citizenship is the best preparation for college and that marked differentiation for the pre-college and for the non-college student is not essential. Hartung, in his editorial comments in the December, 1949, issue of the *School Review*, states this view very clearly in the following language:

The assumption that preparation for college and a more functional curriculum in the high school are incompatible has been examined and found questionable, if not invalid. A steadily increasing body of research shows that modern objectives and methods in secondary-school courses produce learning products at least as good, and in some respects better, than those produced by the more traditional college-oriented type of work. Relatively few teachers in high schools and colleges are familiar, except in a vague way, with these studies, and certainly very few parents have heard of them. The feeling of insecurity, shared by many in both of these groups whenever curriculum changes are undertaken, must be reduced.²

If, as the committee believes is the case, college admission practices have had a detrimental effect on the second-

dary school curriculum, this phase of the studies should seek to determine (1) the special skills, information, attitudes, and habits required for college success; (2) where and by whom these special objectives should be attained; and (3) how college admission practices should be changed to relieve the pressure on secondary schools and at the same time allow desirable screening for college entrance.

Other topics for exploration and study in Phase One are:

1. The utilization of evidences of a student's relative strengths as discovered by his high school, in classifying him in college and in making proper adjustments in his college program. Among the kinds of evidence that might be considered by the college are: high school records, the results of aptitude tests and interest inventories, and such information as can be secured from college records.
2. The extra-instructional aids that should be provided at both the secondary school and college levels to facilitate the emotional, social, and scholastic adjustments of the student. Among the aids which might be considered are: reading clinics, speech clinics, how-to-study clinics, special health programs, etc.

Phase One should include a careful study of on-going projects and experiments in the field of school and college relations. The Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement is perhaps the best known of these projects. In the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* for January, 1949, Waskin describes the new agreement and some of the changes which have come about since its adoption. It is significant to note that the agreement is a direct outgrowth of the Michigan Study of the Secondary-School Curriculum study which was begun in 1937.³

¹ Bryant Drake, "They're not Ready for College if They're not Ready for Life," *Better Homes and Gardens*, XXVII (September, 1948), 196-197.

² Maurice L. Hartung, "Educational News and Editorial Comment," *School Review*, LVII (December, 1949), 523.

³ Leo S. Waskin, "The Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIII, No. 159, Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1949, pp. 49-64.

Bulgar points out that the Michigan plan and modifications of the plan in effect in Oregon, Washington, Illinois, and California give promise of better articulation in secondary school curriculum development and in college admissions.¹ On March 15, 1950, a state-wide conference on High School and College Relations, meeting in Oklahoma City, adopted a four-point plan of procedures which offers great possibilities for promoting closer working relations between colleges and secondary schools in Oklahoma. The conference adopted the recommendation that Oklahoma secondary schools and colleges cooperate with the Committee on High School-College Relations of the North Central Association in setting up and carrying out cooperative demonstrations of improved school and college relationships.

One of the purposes of the Illinois Secondary-School Curriculum Program is "to establish improved relations between secondary schools and higher institutions." Houston describes the forward-looking Illinois plan and quotes excerpts from the Report of the Illinois Committee on Relations with Higher Institutions, including statements of guiding principles and recommendations, in the March, 1950, issue of the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*.²

Studies of the on-going projects in the field of school and college relations should help to answer such questions as these: (1) What are the bases or procedures whereby college and second-

ary-school leaders work together effectively in the solution of their common problems? (2) What are the elements of strength and weakness in existing programs for improving school and college relations?

*PHASE TWO: SET UP AND CONDUCT
LOCAL COOPERATIVE DEMONSTRATIONS
AND PROVIDE FOR EXCHANGE OF
INFORMATION AND EXPERIENCE
AMONG GROUPS CONCERNED*

The second phase of the series of studies envisages the setting up of several local and regional cooperative demonstrations or projects involving various types and sizes of colleges, and one or more of their principal feeder secondary schools. In such demonstrations, the dynamics of school and college relations would be observed and described with special emphasis upon promising machinery of articulation.

In selecting colleges and secondary schools to engage in cooperative study and experimentation, consideration would be given to types of institutions, character of existing relationships, and the willingness on the part of administrators and teachers to participate in the projects.

The committee feels that demonstrations in which concrete problems of immediate concern to the cooperating institutions are being attacked would be the best way in which to bring high school and college administrators, counselors, and teachers into direct contact with one another. The committee strongly believes that these demonstrations should involve faculty members, as well as administrators, of colleges and secondary schools.

A possible project involving Drake University and the high schools of Des Moines is suggested specifically as an illustration of the kind of cooperative demonstration that might be

¹ Paul C. Bulgar, "What About Articulation of the Secondary School and College?" *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV, No. 169, Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1950, pp. 144-149.

² Victor M. Houston, "What about Articulation of Secondary School and College?" *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-Schools Principals*, XXXIV, No. 169, Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1950, pp. 149-57.

arranged under the auspices of the committee. In such a situation, the opportunities for contact between college and secondary school groups would be numerous and the procedures for securing cooperation relatively simple.

A second type of project is represented by a liberal arts college located in a small town. The particular problems and procedures of articulation between such an institution and the secondary schools from which it receives its graduates might be investigated through one or more local cooperative demonstrations.

A complex institution, such as the University of Minnesota, and the secondary schools which furnish the majority of graduates who enter the various University colleges, offer a third desirable group for self-study and experimentation.

The cooperating institutions would have the benefit of information brought together through Phase One of the studies. Information concerning desirable goals, significant problems, and promising procedures would be available for guidance. The cooperating institutions might set up and try out these and other promising procedures for working together in meeting the agreed-upon-goals. Such procedures as getting various administrative and instructional groups organized and functioning would be developed and applied. Attempts would be made to devise new machinery for promoting continuous and fruitful contacts between representatives of colleges and secondary schools in solving vital local problems in student personnel services and curriculum articulation.

**PHASE THREE: COORDINATE LOCAL
DEMONSTRATIONS AND PROVIDE
FOR EXCHANGE OF INFORMA-
TION AND EXPERIENCES
AMONG GROUPS
CONCERNED**

The problem involved at this point is primarily that of inter-project coordination. The following methods and devices are proposed for accomplishing Phase Three:

1. Over-all coordination of project plans and activities by a committee representing the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.
2. Direct coordination and assistance by one or more consultants or coordinators, selected by the committee. This procedure would involve visitation of various groups and institutions and conferences by the available consultants or coordinators for the purposes of observation and coordination of activities.
3. Preparation, publication, and distribution of newssheets, handbooks, evaluation guides, and other types of aids as a means of exchanging information and experiences among institutions and individuals involved in local and regional studies. In this way each local group could profit from the experiences of others.

**PHASE FOUR: EVALUATE AND DIS-
SEMINATE RESULTS OF STUDIES
IN PHASES ONE, TWO
AND THREE**

The job in Phase Four would be to devise and apply means for evaluating the findings, conclusions, and recommendations growing out of previous phases of the studies, and for disseminating the results widely among member secondary schools and colleges. For example, it is contemplated that the committee will refer a summary of the analysis and review of the literature involving goals and problems in Phase One to an evaluation committee of qualified persons for their study and critical appraisal.

It is gratifying to the committee that Ruth Eckert, of the University of

Minnesota, has volunteered to assist in reviewing and commenting critically on the materials gathered in connection with Phase One of the projected studies. Furthermore, Dr. Eckert has expressed the hope that the University of Minnesota might be included among the institutions selected for experimentation.

Since it is contemplated that the demonstrations will result not only in the stimulation of similar effects at other centers, but will also help build up a body of promising techniques that could be employed elsewhere, the committee proposes as one step in the program the wide dissemination of material resulting from the earlier phases.

*PHASE FIVE: STIMULATE AND
PROMOTE IMPROVED PRACTICES
AMONG SCHOOLS AND
COLLEGES*

This phase of the studies accords with the purposes and activities of the Association. It is noteworthy that the Association is a voluntary organization and that it operates primarily through activities which are stimulative and advisory in character. Consequently, it is proposed that the methods and devices used for accomplishing Phase Five should be in keeping with this tradition.

If it should be determined that cer-

tain criteria and procedures for recognizing colleges and secondary schools stand in the way of promoting better instructional programs and better working relationships, the committee has faith the Association will make such changes as are called for.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The committee believes that the proposed plan of studies offers opportunities for leaders in colleges and secondary schools and in State Departments of Education to work together realistically and fearlessly in the solution of common educational problems. Many of the problems of school and college relations are so complex that only by group study and cooperative action can progress be made in their solution.

Lags in improving guidance services and in providing more suitable educational experiences for the fullest possible development of boys and girls result in continued waste of human resources in tragic proportions.

The North Central Association has led the way toward better educational practice in the past. Our Association has shown that it is reasonably adaptable. We need now to bestir ourselves again by demonstrating a high order of educational statesmanship in meeting the aims of our Association.

COMPETITION AND SCHOOL ACTIVITIES¹

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON

Secretary, Commission on Secondary Schools

"EXTRA-CURRICULAR activities" have come of age. The day has long since passed when athletics and clubs and bands and student councils and the whole astounding array of student organizations which characterize a modern high school could be lightly dismissed or successfully opposed by teachers and school administrators. Few would wish to oppose them. Most thoughtful educators are concerned rather to capitalize on the vitality of student interest shown and to integrate the student activities into the total educational program of the school. One evidence of this concern has been the effort—largely unsuccessful—to replace the term "extra-curricular" with one more descriptive of the character of the activities described and more suggestive of their relationship to other phases of the school's program. Such terms as "co-curricular," "intra-curricular," "semi-curricular," "collateral," or simply "student activities" have been proposed at various times as substitutes. While none of these has supplanted the earlier title, their use has served to demonstrate clearly the recognition on the part of school people that the experiences comprised in these extra-class projects are a significant part of the educational enterprise.

There is increasing acceptance of the point of view that the curriculum is "composed of all the experiences

children have under the guidance of teachers." "Extra-curricular activities" are to be thought of as merely less formally organized phases of the total curriculum. The emerging concept of the school curriculum shifts attention from bodies of subject matter to experiences young people have and the outcomes of those experiences. Subject matter—and extra-curricular activities—are of importance only as they contribute to outcomes which are likely to profit individual pupils and the society which supports the school (and of which these pupils are a part).

What are the desirable outcomes of secondary education in the United States? Any realistic consideration of the responsibilities placed upon education in the modern world will recognize that they are varied. The ancient dictum that "knowledge is power" is not an adequate blue print for secondary education today. Knowledge is not enough. The inadequacy of the concept is all the more clearly revealed when "knowledge" is interpreted to mean isolated fragments of subject matter hermetically sealed in separate compartments, unrelated to each other or to the life of the community. The formal instruction in high school classrooms has suffered too much from the "Quiz Kids" concept of education. Albert North Whitehead indicts much of contemporary education when he says:

There is only one subject-matter for education, and that is Life in all its manifestations. Instead of this single unity, we offer children—Algebra, from which nothing follows; Geometry, from which nothing follows; Science, from which nothing follows; History, from which nothing follows; a couple of Languages, never mastered; and lastly, most dreary of all, Literature, represented by plays of Shakespeare, with

¹ *Editor's Note:* This is an introduction to a series of articles on contests which will appear in subsequent issues of the *QUARTERLY* and which will constitute a report of the Contest Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools. Mr. Lowell B. Fisher, chairman of the Illinois State Committee of the Association, is chairman of the Contest Committee which is preparing the whole report.

philological notes and short analyses of plot and character to be in substance committed to memory. Can such a list be said to represent Life, as it is known in the midst of the living of it? The best that can be said of it is, that it is a rapid table of contents which a deity might run over in his mind while he was thinking of creating a world, and had not yet determined how to put it together.

Education must teach pupils not merely to *know*—or even to *understand*—but to develop abilities to *do*. Skills are important outcomes to be achieved. The shop and the laboratory are indispensable features of the modern school. Vocational courses have introduced a refreshing note of realism in school experience for some pupils. So has science, when it has not been mere factual regurgitation and manipulation of test tubes. So has mathematics when it has been concerned with real problems. (The “problems” of the text book are too often not problems at all to the pupil. The only problem to him is to get an answer which will satisfy the teacher!) Experimentation, with programs of “work experience” and projection of the school program beyond class room walls into the life of the community provide for practice of a wide variety of skills, not least among them skills in inter-personal relations.

Education, however, is not concerned with knowledge and skills alone. We are concerned even more with attitudes and appreciations. It has been brought home to the world with terrifying impressiveness in the last decade that scientific knowledge and technical skill, when not infused with a sense of social responsibility and respect for personality, can menace the very survival of civilization. Every community pays a heavy toll to counteract the effect of social irresponsibility and indifference. Appropriately, several state and national professional organizations have concerned themselves with the devel-

opment of more effective education for citizenship. Patriotic organizations and other lay groups have also shown a serious interest in improving the quality of civic education in American schools. Effective citizenship in a democracy demands increased knowledge and a variety of skills; most of all it calls for a sense of personal obligation and a recognition of democratic values. It is in the field of attitudes that progress in civic education is most likely to be achieved.

It is also in this field of attitudes that the so-called extra-curricular activities have their chief contributions to make. The spontaneous interest which has usually given rise to the various activities, the play of student initiative in carrying out the program, the very enthusiasm which activities generate, all help to make the activities program a fertile ground for cultivating desirable attitudes. In the classroom a pupil may talk about citizenship. In the student council he has a chance to practice it. As a member of an athletic team a player feels the challenge to show his loyalty to his fellows and his school. This potential contribution of the extra-curricular program to desirable civic attitudes was aptly stated by Elbert K. Fretwell in his famous thesis, “It is the business of the school to organize the whole situation so that there is a favorable opportunity for everyone, teachers as well as pupils, to practice the qualities of the good citizen here and now with results satisfactory to the one doing the practicing.”

But if the extra-curricular activities have a special contribution to make to civic education, it should be recognized that the contribution is potential and not automatic. The newly elected council officer or committee chairman may develop a sense of responsibility toward a group that has chosen him,

or he may, conceivably, look upon the office as an opportunity for personal advantage and political manipulation. The football player may be developing qualities of loyalty and good sportsmanship or he may be developing an unhealthy desire for the lime light and the conviction that winning is all that matters. Where there has not been a definite effort to insure a wide variety of extra-curricular activity and to distribute the opportunity for participation, the very success of the activity program may result in greater frustration and feeling of inadequacy on the part of pupils who are left out of its benefits. Evaluation of outcomes in terms of the values it is intended to achieve is as important for the extra-curricular program as for any other phase of the educational enterprise. Evaluation is, unfortunately, a neglected area. In the past twenty years the books and articles about student activities have well exceeded the limits of the "five foot shelf." A surprisingly small amount of this publication has had to do with appraisal.

One of the most persistent questions facing responsible educators in relation to the activity program is the role which competition should play. The urge to excel is inherent in the human organism. Particularly in the United States, competition has played an important part in developing our institutions and forming our national character. Thoughtful students of the American scene, however, would recognize both assets and liabilities in the competitive aspects of our culture. Unquestionably they have contributed to the development of that self-reliance and initiative in which we take a justifiable pride. It is equally clear that they have developed, in many instances, a disregard of the social consequences of individual acts. The reckless exploitation of our natural re-

sources threatens not only our prosperity but our survival as a nation. The waste of human resources in the competitive struggle is revealed in the drab statistics of court room and mental hospital.

The school in many ways reflects the social order of which it is a part. Here, too, competition may be a wholesome stimulus or a ruthless struggle for personal recognition. In the eagerness to win games and add cups and banners to the school collection, the competitive aspects of school activities may overshadow or even counteract experiences of a cooperative character. In a world which desperately needs an increase in tolerance, mutual helpfulness, and respect for others, the school has a primary responsibility to provide opportunities for practicing these qualities. This is not to say that competition has no place in the activity program, but rather that there needs to be a sane balance of competitive and cooperative experiences for young people. It is important to distinguish situations in which each is important. The problem is essentially one of emphasis and control.

That this problem is of concern to secondary school administrators was revealed in the report of a committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals published in the Bulletin of that organization in 1941. This report was based on a canvass of opinions of the membership obtained through an inquiry addressed to the coordinators of the various state associations. As chairman of that committee, the writer presented an analysis of "Critical Problems in the Administration of Activities" with suggestions for the conduct of different phases of the program. Of one of the "critical problems" the committee had this to say:

IV. The Competitive aspects of the program have been over-emphasized. The winning of contests has been allowed to overshadow more important outcomes.

In athletics we have long been accustomed to a situation where pupils divide themselves into gladiators and bench warmers. In its worst form, the system develops an exaggerated opinion of their own importance on the part of the spotlighted few and a distorted sense of values in the rest of the student body. The growing interest in intramural sports and the action of several state principals' associations to reduce the emphasis on state contests of various kinds are encouraging signs, but the situation in general is still one deserving careful study on the part of those responsible for the educational program.

In recent years we have seen the development of a wide range of state and national contests in other fields of school activity—speech, debating, dramatics, journalism, music, typewriting, and academic subjects. Unquestionably the contest idea has stimulated interest in improved standards of performance and has broadened the experience of those participating. There is little doubt, however, that the present overemphasis has resulted in excessive participation by a few and neglect of the educational needs of the less capable—those who need the experiences most. In some instances, the contest represents thinly disguised exploitation of pupils to enhance the reputation of a sponsor or a community. Often the effort to equip competitors and to finance their attendance at state and national contests has taxed local resources and diverted funds which should have been available for extension of opportunities within the school.

Even more important is the criticism that competition is foreign to the objectives of many of these activities. Beating someone else has little to do with appreciating a symphony or understanding the problems involved in socialized medicine. In one state a leading newspaper presents gold watches to winners in the state secondary-school debating contest. We all know schools which pride themselves on records won by contest bands, but where there are no courses in music appreciation and the musical opportunities for the student body as a whole are

negligible. A much more wholesome development is to be found in the sponsoring of local or regional music festivals where the emphasis is not on competition, but on the elevation of musical taste and co-operation in a worth-while community undertaking. The democratic way of life needs desperately to increase the tendencies and the opportunities for co-operation. As long as the need for winning is allowed to dominate the school's activities, these opportunities will not be realized. This is not a problem which can be solved by the individual sponsor or the local school. Community pressure demands victories and professional advancement is often dependent on the record of contests won. The needed redirection of emphasis depends upon concerted action by those responsible for the development of activities. The problem is one with which the National Association of Secondary-School Principals may well concern itself.

The appointment of a Committee on Contests for the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association is timely, and the study that it proposes to make is urgently needed. I have read the preliminary report of the committee outlining the investigation and have been impressed by the comprehensiveness of the study and the plan of the committee to consider the relationship of individual activities to valid objectives of education and sound principles of learning. The results should have significance for secondary education generally and should provide a helpful guide to the harassed administrator on the firing line. Only as extracurricular activities are based on the needs of young people and organized in the light of sound principles of learning will they contribute those values which thoughtful educators desire from them.

THE INDUCTION OF NEW TEACHERS INTO SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY¹

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PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

THE purpose of this study is, primarily, twofold: (1) to identify the problems involved in the induction of new teachers, and (2) to determine the techniques that are employed in the schools to facilitate the induction process. In addition, the investigation proposes to accomplish the following secondary purposes:

1. To establish the relative difficulty of the problems of induction based upon the experienced judgment of the recently inducted teachers included in this study.
2. To determine what techniques were employed in the induction of the teachers included in this study.
3. To ascertain the relative helpfulness to the teachers studied, as a result of the employment of these techniques during their induction.
4. To determine the most effective timing of administrative and supervisory aid designed to facilitate the induction of the new teacher.
5. To state conclusions and make suggestions for the establishment and improvement of induction programs based upon this study and its findings.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The limitations of this investigation are readily recognized. No attempt is made to set up a program of induction believed to be effective in all schools and communities. The study makes no

attempt to measure the degree of adjustment or maladjustment on the part of the inductees studied. Nor does it propose to measure the influence during induction of the manifold strengths and weaknesses which teachers bring with them to the profession. The presence of these variables is readily admitted. In summary, this study seeks to identify the problems that confront a newly appointed teacher during his induction into a teaching situation new to him, and to ascertain the identity and relative helpfulness of certain induction techniques that can be used to help the new teacher achieve maximal teaching success.

IMPORTANCE OF AN EFFECTIVE INDUCTION PROGRAM

The importance of a well-planned and effectively administered program of administrative and supervisory aid to meet the vital needs of new teachers going into new positions has long been recognized by educators. That these needs have not been met by the school systems employing new teachers is just as readily conceded. This condition has been described by Edmonson² as follows:

Unfortunately many schools open on a selected Monday without any preliminary conferences. It is not surprising that some teachers look back to the first week of school with a feeling that they have passed through a nerve-racking experience which they hope they will never have to repeat. When new teachers have this feeling, it is an indictment of the administrator.

¹ EDITOR'S NOTE: This is the first of three articles on the induction of teachers into new schools and communities. The series is taken from an unpublished doctoral dissertation completed at Teachers College, Columbia University in 1948 and is being printed in the *QUARTERLY* at the suggestion of T. H. Broad, secretary of the Commission on Research and Service. The author wishes to give due credit to his doctoral committee, Profs. Willard S. Elsbree (chairman), E. S. Evenden, Daniel R. Davies, and Gordon Mackenzie.

² J. B. Edmonson, "Assisting the New Teacher," *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin* 29; Number 127-34, pp. 39-40, January, 1945.

In a recent investigation into the procedures employed in the schools in the selection and appointment of teachers, the National Education Association, Research Division, describes the importance of effective induction of new teachers as follows:

The probationary teacher is in a difficult position; he should receive helpful supervision and induction into service. . . . Each new appointment is followed by a period of adjustment and orientation that may have lasting influence on the teacher's attitude towards teaching and the quality of his work. The friendly help that can be provided by the school system in helping the new teacher to make a good start may pay large returns to the system in morale and efficiency.¹

The Commission on Teacher Education, appointed in 1938 by the American Council on Education, in a series of publications covering almost every phase of teacher education, refers frequently to the need for, and importance of, more adequate induction programs designed to help the new teacher achieve initial success. In its final report, the Commission states,

A beginning teacher's success must depend primarily upon himself and upon the character of the working situation he has entered. It is important that his pre-service experience should have prepared him to meet new problems self-reliantly; it is equally important that each school system take definite responsibility for helping new teachers to become established.²

In order to be maximally effective, the program designed to facilitate the new teacher's induction into a new position must take into consideration the total environment of the teaching situation. This involves more than the school; it includes the community with

all its manifold aspects and relationships and their constant interactions and interfusions. Schools which stay aloof from the community cannot serve their functional purpose in a democratic society. Edmund DeS. Brunner has vividly described the relationship which must exist today between the school and the community as follows:

The school is an institution of the community. Its fortunes ebb and flow with those of the community. School-community interaction is inevitable, and by the same token, extensive and intimate knowledge of the community is a sine qua non of successful school administration and teaching. Without such knowledge the school cannot do its job of either educating children or participating in community life and improvement.³

It seems evident, therefore, that, if the teacher is to meet the responsibility of teaching in such a school-community, he must successfully establish himself in some manner in the community. There is ample educational literature on the importance and necessity of the teacher's becoming acquainted with the community's resources, both human and material, which may be used to vitalize and enrich the classroom activities and thus relate the school's program to the improvement of community life. There is reason to believe, however, that many teachers are not only unfamiliar with methods and techniques of establishing desirable teacher-community relationships, but are inclined to withdraw from community life. This tendency would be particularly true of new teachers who are unfamiliar with the community's customs and mores, its resources, its strengths, and its weaknesses.

¹ National Education Association, "Teacher Personnel Procedures: Selection and Appointment," Research Bulletin 20: 73-74, March, 1942.

² American Council on Education, "Improvement of Teacher Education, A Final Report," The Commission on Teacher Education, Washington, D. C., 1946, p. 76.

³ Edmund DeS. Brunner, *Readings in Foundations of Education*, 1: 218, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1941.

NEEDS SERVED BY BETTER INDUCTION PROGRAMS

In addition to the needs for more effective induction programs mentioned in the preceding discussion, there are many additional needs concerning which this study should furnish valuable suggestions. The following list includes examples of these needs.

1. The number of new teachers needed annually during the next decade to replace emergency certificated personnel, to reduce the teaching load, and to meet the expanded enrollment has been estimated at 104,000. It is desirable that these teachers be successfully inducted into their teaching situations.
2. During the current emergency period it is highly probable that many teaching positions will be filled by teachers inadequately prepared both with respect to training and experience. These teachers particularly need more effective guidance during the induction period.
3. A new teacher in any school system, even if experienced, is confronted with many new and challenging problems because every school and community is unique in many ways. A successful teacher in one community may not necessarily be successful in another.
4. In the modern school successful teaching depends to a very large extent upon school and community relationships as well as the discovery and utilization of the human and material resources of the community. The new teacher should have all possible assistance in analyzing and utilizing the community towards the improvement of the teaching-learning situation. The administration, through more effective induction of the new teacher, can serve this need.
5. The induction of a new teacher involves the adjustment of the pupil and the teacher as well as the teacher to the pupils. It is, therefore, imperative that the process be accomplished with the maximum of speed and efficiency.
6. The effective induction of new teachers should serve to decrease the number of drop-outs from the profession, as well as the dissatisfaction of those who remain in teaching, by preventing many of the serious frustrations and mental and emotional blocs which so often confront teachers in adjusting to the school and community.
7. Better induction programs and policies,

resulting in better adjusted and happier teachers, should make the profession more attractive to the youth of our country. It is recognized that the attitudes, outlooks, and mental health of teachers in the classroom have a definite effect upon the attitudes and impressions of the pupils.

8. Better induction of new teachers into the school and community should serve to coordinate the work of school and community agencies. This is an urgent need in many communities.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING THE STUDY

This investigation was undergirded by a faith that a program of induction, like any other administration or supervisory program designed to promote the welfare and improve the effectiveness of teachers, should be based upon the felt needs, problems, and experiences of teachers themselves. Teachers who have been inducted recently into a new teaching situation should be able to speak with more experienced and considered judgment than anyone else regarding the identity and nature of the problems facing a new teacher. They should have insights into the relative degrees of difficulty; the helpfulness, or lack of helpfulness, of the techniques employed in the resolution of these problems; and, finally, the most effective timing and planning of a program of guidance and assistance during the induction process.

The failure to seek out and to utilize the suggestions and learned experiences of teachers in planning programs designed to promote teaching growth and improvement of conditions surrounding teaching has been a weakness of educational administration. In addition, this neglect, or dereliction, violates the established principles of democratically conceived program planning designed to produce desirable growth in teachers. Some of these principles are: that all persons affected by the program should participate in its formation,

that the program must be focused on problems that are meaningful and familiar to teachers in whom improvement is desired, that the problems must reflect the needs of teachers as they themselves recognize them, that the problems must concern the group directly rather than by inference, and the program must be so planned and executed as to enable those involved to see visible results in the process of improvement.

An effective program of induction should produce desirable change and stimulate growth in a new teacher who is just entering the profession or who has taught successfully, or unsuccessfully, in other communities, and is entering a new teaching situation. This growth and improvement involves change in the teacher's outlook, attitudes, vision. Those who understand how such changes are effected know that people do not change except through experiences and insights that help them to understand and replace their fallacious and untenable attitudes with valid and defensible ones. It is believed that a program of induction based (1) upon the teacher's own problems and felt needs and (2) the techniques judged by the teachers to have been extremely helpful to them as they sought to adapt to a new teaching situation would stimulate desirable improvement in teachers. This would, in turn, provide better teaching for boys and girls in the schools of our country.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The term *induction*, as employed in this study, is intended to mean helping the newly appointed teacher to achieve maximal initial teaching success in a new teaching situation. It includes all possible administrative and supervisory aid, of a personal as well as a professional nature, designed to facili-

tate the establishment of harmonious relationships between the new teacher and the total school-community environment.

The term *new teacher* is used throughout this study to refer to any teacher, with or without previous teaching experience, who is employed to teach in a situation new to him. Reference to any new teacher who is teaching in a new school and community or in a new teaching situation is included in this definition.

The term *induction period*, as used in this study, means that period beginning with the first contact between the candidate and employing personnel and extending to the time during the inductee's teaching when the aid and assistance provided the new teacher in making necessary adaptations is merged with the school's in-service training program. This latter point cannot be definitely fixed, except arbitrarily, due to the wide range in abilities of persons to adjust to new situations. The many variables such as personality, adaptability, temperament, and quality and quantity of training would be present in varying amounts in each inductee.

The term *community*, or *school-community*, may be taken to mean not only the geographical area immediately surrounding the school but also the total school environment of the area. This environment embraces all the people, the stores, factories, plants, farms, offices, and cultural resources of the community. Moreover, this concept of the school-community involves the intangible aspects of community living such as prejudices, biases, and opinions. All of these aspects of living must be considered by the school which seeks to relate its program to community life.

SOURCES OF THE DATA

The data for the study have been secured and compiled from the six

sources listed below:

1. The literature of educational administration, supervision, personnel administration, and teacher education.
2. Personal interviews, singly and in groups, with recently inducted teachers, both beginners and experienced, in their actual teaching situations.
3. Supplementary materials, secured through correspondence and visitation, including trial questionnaires filled out by principals, supervisors, and teachers in school systems visited in person.
4. Personal conferences and interviews with classmates and members of the Advanced School in Teachers College, Columbia University, including recently inducted teachers, principals, supervisors, curriculum directors, and others. This group made many invaluable suggestions and criticisms of the check-list employed in this study aiding in its clarification and refinement.
5. Conferences and interviews with members of the sponsoring committee, and other members of the faculty at Teachers College, Columbia University, who cooperated by lending the weight of their experience and knowledge resulting in many revisions and additions in the tentative check-list. This source was invaluable to the study.
6. Finally, the results of a check-sheet given to recently inducted teachers attending summer classes in Teachers College who cooperated in the study.

METHODS USED IN THE INVESTIGATION

The plan of attack on the problem called for (1) a survey of the literature pertaining to the induction of new teachers, (2) personal visits to several school systems for conferences and interviews with recently inducted teachers as well as employing and supervising personnel, (3) construction of a check-sheet that would secure the desired data, and (4) identification and enlistment of the cooperation of recently inducted teachers in responding to the instrument.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

An extensive survey of the literature of educational administration and supervision, teacher personnel adminis-

tration, and related fields revealed a definite paucity of research in the specific area of induction of teachers. For the most part the literature consisted of an unpublished doctoral degree study,¹ three unpublished Master's degree studies,² and numerous published articles in the various educational journals. In addition, the subject has been treated in a more or less general nature in the various published reports of Commissions appointed to study certain phases of the improvement of teaching and administration. Some emphasis has been given induction and orientation of teachers in the textbooks in general administration and supervision as well as teacher adjustment, and mental hygiene.

The above literature was analyzed for general guides and suggestions in planning and organizing the study of problems and techniques of induction. In the main, the major benefit derived was the compilation of problems actually felt and experienced by teachers during their induction into new teaching situations as well as the techniques that can be employed by school systems to facilitate and expedite the induction process.

This list of problems and techniques of induction, after having been refined

¹ Robert N. Walker, *Procedures to Facilitate the Induction and Adjustment of Beginning Teachers*. An unpublished doctoral study presented to the graduate faculty of the University of West Virginia, 1939.

² Orlando H. Johnson, *The Adjustment of New Elementary School Teachers in City School Systems*, University of Chicago, Master's Thesis (1929), typescript.

Charles A. Kissell, *A Study to Determine the Practices and Extent to Which These Practices are Used in the Induction of Teachers to Service in the High Schools of Less Than Two Hundred Students in the State of Pennsylvania*. Pennsylvania State University, Master's Degree Thesis (1930), typescript.

Harold R. Patridge, *The Induction of Teachers Into Service in the Schools of Nebraska and Adjoining States*. University of Nebraska, Master's Thesis (1933), typescript.

and submitted to trial groups as described later, constituted the major part of the check-sheet employed in the study.

PERSONAL VISITS, CONFERENCES, INTERVIEWS

The need for additional background and perspective with which to attack a problem of this nature was readily recognized. It was believed, also, that first-hand, face-to-face contacts with new teachers who had been inducted into their present positions within the past one or two years, together with consultation with the school personnel responsible for their supervision during the induction period, would serve as an effective means for providing the desired perspective and background. In addition, it was thought that this observation and visitation would supply the study with practical and realistic material not otherwise available. This proved to be true.

In carrying out these plans, arrangements were made to visit several school systems and confer with superintendents, personnel directors, supervisors, principals, and teachers, both new and experienced. These interviews, held singly and in groups, proved to be of invaluable help in setting up this study. The value of these personal visits was enhanced by the cooperation of many of the principals, supervisors, and teachers by checking the tentative check-sheet and offering criticisms and suggestions for revision and refinement.

As a result of those visits and interviews, supplemented by subsequent correspondence and follow-up visits with groups of new teachers, the writer gained much information of an especially practicable nature as well as many valuable insights into the problems of induction of new teachers and the techniques employed by the school

systems towards their resolution.

Another valuable resource in building insights and achieving perspective for this study were the many conversations and discussions held with faculty members, fellow students, and teachers who were concerned with the problems of orientation and induction of teachers. In this group were a number of teachers and advanced students who had recently been inducted into new positions.

CONSTRUCTING THE CHECK-SHEET

The check-sheet, or questionnaire, method was selected as the best available technique to collect the desired data. The weaknesses and limitations of this method of investigation are readily conceded but considerations of time, economy, and other factors precluded the use of other methods. Throughout the construction of the check-list, constant efforts were made to:

1. Make the statements as clear and specific as possible.
2. Reduce the amount of writing on the part of the respondent by employing simple checks in yes-no columns.
3. Make the check-lists as brief as possible without, however, sacrificing its necessary comprehensiveness, by avoiding duplications and statements the answers to which were obvious or well known.
4. Facilitate the task of the respondent in checking the instrument by means of specific instructions stated at the top of each part of the form.
5. Increase the reliability of the instrument through trial testing on fellow students who criticized the instrument and suggested revisions.
6. Further refine the instrument through consultations and interviews with members of the sponsoring committee and other members of the faculty.

In its tentative state the check-sheet contained in excess of one hundred and fifty items. This list was compiled through a careful survey of a vast amount of the literature of educational

administration, supervision, teacher education, pre-service and in-service training of teachers, teacher personnel, mental hygiene of teachers, and the maladjustment of teachers. The literature in this area is not found in any organized form. Rather it is scattered throughout the many text-books written in administration and supervision, in periodicals, editorials, the educational journals, and the various year-books. For this reason it was deemed prudent to include in this study a review of several of the major studies and articles covered in this survey.

Following the process of revision and refinement described above, the check sheet consisted of thirty-five commonly encountered problems of induction, and a like number of techniques that are employed in the school systems of the country in facilitating the new teacher's induction. It is believed that the check-sheet in its final form includes most of the problems involved and the techniques employed in the induction of new teachers.

ADMINISTERING THE CHECK-SHEET

The plan for getting the check-sheet into the hands of public school elementary and secondary classroom teachers who had been recently inducted into teaching situations new to them called for the identification and enlistment of the cooperation of these teachers in attendance in the summer classes at Teachers College, Columbia University. The approval and cooperation of the faculty members of the classes in which it was felt the desired teachers would be enrolled was readily secured. The subject of the study and the nature and purpose of the check-sheet were explained, and the teachers, both beginners and experienced, who had been in their present positions from one to four years were identified. These teachers were

then asked to indicate their willingness to respond to the statements on the check-sheet and to return the form at the next regular class-meeting. The findings resulting from the tabulation and analyzation comprises a later chapter in this study.

THE SAMPLING

The teachers included in this investigation were for the most part from urban areas, 27.9 percent coming from localities with a population of 100,000 or more; 19.1 percent from cities ranging from 30,000 to 99,999; 17.7 percent from cities of from 10,000 to 30,000 population; 8.1 percent from localities with a population between 5,000 and 10,000; and 27.2 percent from rural areas with a population below 5,000. These percentages represent a composite of 72.8 percent urban and 27.2 percent rural distribution.

An examination of Table I shows the teachers to be almost equally divided as to sex, 49.2 percent men and 50.8 percent women. The high ratio of men to women is undoubtedly attributable to the large current enrollment of veterans. With respect to marital status, 46.3 percent of the group were married while 53.7 percent were single. In regard to teaching level, 45.6 percent of the group were high school teachers while 55.4 percent were teaching in elementary schools.

Geographically, the teachers in this study were from twenty-seven states representing every section of the country from Florida to California to Maine. As would be expected, however, the larger number, seventy-two, or 52.9 percent of the total group, came from four nearby states, namely, New York, New Jersey, Connecticut and Pennsylvania. North Carolina was represented by eleven, or 8.1 percent of the total sampling.

Table II shows the data regarding

TABLE I
BASES UPON WHICH 136 RECENTLY INDUCTED
TEACHERS WERE STUDIED

Item	Percent	Item	Percent
1. Size of City*		2. Urban.....	72.8
a. Below 5,000.....	27.2	3. Rural.....	27.2
b. 5,000-10,000.....	8.1	4. Men.....	49.2
c. 10,000-30,000.....	17.7	5. Women.....	50.8
d. 30,000-99,999.....	19.1	6. Married.....	46.3
e. Above 100,000.....	27.9	7. Single.....	53.7
Total.....	100.0	8. Elementary.....	55.4

* This investigation employs the same population range groupings as has been used by the National Education Association, Research Division, in its research studies in Teacher Employment Practices. See National Education Association, Research Bulletin 20: 77, March, 1942.

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF 136 RECENTLY INDUCTED
TEACHERS STUDIED ACCORDING TO (1) AVERAGE
NUMBER YEARS TEACHING EXPERIENCE, (2)
AVERAGE NUMBER OF COMMUNITIES TAUGHT IN,
(3) AVERAGE NUMBER YEARS IN PRESENT
POSITION, AND (4) AVERAGE AGE

Item	Average
1. Years Teaching Experience.....	7.53
2. Communities Taught In.....	2.53
3. Years in Present Position.....	1.82
4. Age.....	31.22

the 136 teachers with respect to teaching experience. It is observed that the average number of years of teaching experience was 7.53, the average number of communities in which the group had taught was 2.33, and the average number of years in their present positions was 1.83.

Table III shows the years tenure of the group in their current teaching position and the number of communities in which they have taught. An examination of Table III reveals that sixty-nine, or 50.7 percent of the total group, had taught one year in their present positions; thirty-five, or 25.7

TABLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF 136 RECENTLY INDUCTED TEACHERS ACCORDING TO YEARS TENURE IN
PRESENT POSITION, AND NUMBER OF COMMUNITIES IN WHICH EXPERIENCE WAS GAINED

Item	Number	Percent
Tenure in Present Position		
1. One year in present position.....	69	50.7
2. Two years in present position.....	35	25.7
3. Three years in present position.....	15	11.0
4. Four (or more) in present position.....	17	12.6
Total.....	136	100.0
Communities		
1. Taught in One Community.....	44	32.4
2. Taught in Two Communities.....	35	25.7
3. Taught in Three Communities.....	35	25.7
4. Taught in Four (or more) Communities.....	22	16.2
Total.....	136	100.0

percent, had been in their present positions two years; and thirty-two, or 23.6 percent, had been in their current positions three years or more.

With respect to number of communities in which the teachers studied had had teaching experience, forty-four, or 32.4 percent of the total group, indicated they had taught in one community; thirty-five, or 25.7 percent, had taught in two communities; thirty-five, or 25.7 percent, had taught in three communities; and twenty-two, or 16.2 percent, indicated they had had teaching experience in four or more communities.

The minimum years teaching experience, as well as the number of communities in which any respondent had taught, was one. The maximum years teaching experience was thirty and the maximum number of communities was eight.

REPRESENTATIVENESS OF THE SAMPLING

No claim is made with respect to the representativeness of the sampling of teachers included in this study as contrasted with the members of the profession as a whole or with respect to samplings used in other similar studies. The reasons for this are obvious. In the first place the selection of the sampling was based upon teachers, both beginning and experienced, who had been recently inducted into new positions in new communities. This requirement alone made the sampling a highly selective group. The thinking here was that, since the evaluation of problems and techniques of induction was to be based upon experienced teacher judgment, recency of the induction experience was more important than a representative sampling of the members of the profession as a whole. With respect to testing the representativeness of the sampling by comparing

with previous studies, such was not possible since no previous study had been made involving recently inducted teachers.

Since no basis in fact exists by which the sampling can be tested as to its representativeness, it remains to point out the data shown in Tables I, II, and III which indicate that the results of the group's evaluation may be taken as authoritative and reasonably reliable. These are listed below.

1. The sampling includes a reasonably large representation from each of the recognized population levels as to size of cities.
2. The sampling includes both urban and rural teachers with the former dominant.
3. The sampling includes an almost equal distribution of men and women teachers.
4. The sampling contains a fairly close distribution of married and single teachers.
5. The sampling includes both high school and elementary teachers.
6. The sampling is comprised of a significant percentage of teachers who have recently been inducted into new positions in new communities. Out of the total group 104, or 76.4 percent, had been inducted into their present positions within the past two years.
7. The sampling is composed of teachers who have had teaching experience in from one to eight communities and who may be assumed from this experience to be competent to evaluate and appraise induction problems and techniques.
8. The school situations represented by the sampling appear to be relatively representative of the schools over the country.

It is believed that this group of teachers are representative of the vast number of teachers employed each year in new teaching situations. The judgment of the group should be fairly authoritative since it is based on recent induction experiences in new teaching situations.

THE PROBLEMS OF INDUCTION

Part I of the check-sheet was designed to enable each of the respondents to indicate (1) whether or not each problem listed was personally experi-

enced during his recent induction and (2) to estimate the degree of difficulty caused by each problem according to six choices ranging from 0, or no difficulty whatever, to 5, or extremely difficult. The results of the first response should reveal the induction problems that are most frequently encountered by new teachers, based upon the experience of the group studied. The second response should yield a fair estimate of degrees of difficulty of the problems most commonly experienced by the group during their recent induction.

Table IV is designed to show the problems of induction experienced by more than 50 percent of the 136 teachers included in this study. The table shows the percentage of the group personally experiencing each problem listed on the check sheet during their induction, the percentage indicating that they did not experience the problem, the percentage of the group not checking the item, and, finally, the rank of each problem in descending order based on the percentage experiencing the problem.

Table IV also shows that three problems, namely, numbers (1), (5), and (8) were experienced by 75 percent or more of the teachers studied during their recent induction. It is interesting to note that two problems—(1), Learning administrative routines, reports, and procedures, which ranks first in frequency of mention, and (5), Problem of gaining an understanding of the school's system of evaluating pupil achievement, which ranks second in frequency of mention—rank higher than (8), Disciplinary problems. In most studies of the difficulties encountered by teachers, the last problem above is usually ranked first in difficulty. It is particularly significant that two of the three most commonly experienced induction problems are defi-

nately related to the policies and procedures of the school and the administration. The high ranking of problem (8), Disciplinary problems, may be due in part to difficulty experienced by new teachers in learning the school's policy regarding pupil control.

Further examination of Table IV shows that ten problems, namely, (2), (9b), (16), (4), (7), (9a), (3), (9), and (19), were experienced by from 60 to 71 percent of the teachers studied. It is observed that three of these problems, namely, (2), (7), and (19), have a direct bearing on the classroom teaching, while (16) involves the understanding of and adaptation to the school itself. Problems (4) and (3) might be classified as professional problems of induction since they involve establishing relationships with other personnel on a professional basis. This does not disregard the fact that the personal element definitely is involved in these problems. The two problems (9a) and (9) definitely pertain to conditions of work and ranks in frequency of mention, namely, 7.5 and 12 respectively, indicate their importance as serious problems confronting new teachers.

Table IV shows that twelve problems, namely, (17), (35), (18), (6), (22), (25), (32), (15), (20), (33), (24), and (25a) were identified by from 50 to 60 percent of the teachers studied as being present during their recent induction. The most striking point observed in this group of problems is that six problems, namely, (17), (25), (32), (33) and (25a), directly involve the new teachers' relationships to the community, while three additional problems, (17), (22), and (24), are scarcely less directly concerned with the out-of-school life of the teacher.

Three of the remaining four problems falling in the grouping above, namely, (20), (18), and (6), ranking 22, 16, and 17, respectively, in frequency of men-

tion, pertain to the new teacher's assignment or placement, to the management or organization of the class, and to the pupil load of the teacher.

The remaining problem in this higher frequency grouping, number (15), ranking 23 in frequency of mention, is related to the quality of supervision

TABLE IV
PROBLEMS OF INDUCTION EXPERIENCED BY MORE THAN
50 PERCENT OF THE GROUP OF 136 TEACHERS

Problem	Personal Experience with Problem		Not Checking Problem Pct.	Rank Order†
	Pct. Yes	Pct. No		
(1) Learning administrative routines, reports and procedures.	86	13	1	1
(5) *Problem of gaining an understanding of the school's system of evaluating pupil achievement.	75	22	3	2
(8) Disciplinary problems.	75	23	2	3
(9b) Conditions of work—inadequate materials.	71	21	8	4
(16) *Problem of gaining a workable understanding of the school philosophy.	71	24	5	5
(2) Establishing good teacher-pupil relationships.	71	25	4	6
(4) Problem of professional adjustment to other teaching personnel.	68	26	6	7.5
(9a) Conditions of work—inadequate building facilities.	68	26	6	7.5
(7) Teacher-class load.	68	28	4	9
(34) Demands for teacher's time and energy after school hours	67	25	8	10
(3) *Establishing good working relationships with the principal.	67	30	3	11
(9) Conditions of work—drab, unattractive surroundings.	65	31	4	12
(19) Utilization of auxiliary teaching aids.	60	32	8	13
(17) Inadequate salary—not able to meet community standard of living.	59	36	5	14
(35) *Problem of discovery and utilization of community resources.	58	34	8	15
(18) Problems of class management, e.g., organizing class work.	57	35	8	16
(6) Pupil-teacher ratio.	57	39	4	17
(22) Problems encountered in establishing working relationships with parents.	56	37	7	18
(25) Problem of not being informed with respect to community culture and traditions.	52	43	5	19
(32) Difficulties in finding satisfying recreational outlets in the community.	52	44	4	20
(33) *Participating in the community's social, political, and economic life.	51	42	7	21
(20) *Not knowing specific assignment before assuming teaching duties.	51	44	5	22
(15) Non-constructive supervision.	51	46	3	23
(25a) Problem of not being informed with respect to community problems.	50	42	8	24
(24) Problem of securing pleasant living accommodations.	50	43	7	25

* Wording changed slightly for convenience.

† Where frequencies are identical in the column headed by "Yes" but are different in remaining columns, rank is based upon the possibility of change in rank on basis of person not checking item.

TABLE V
PROBLEMS OF INDUCTION EXPERIENCED BY LESS THAN
50 PERCENT OF THE GROUP OF 136 TEACHERS

Problem	Personal Experience with Problem		Not Checking Problem Pct.	Rank Order*
	Pct. Yes	Pct. No		
(29) Selecting and establishing satisfying social contacts in the community.....	47	46	7	1
(14) Inability to get conferences with the principal when needed.....	46	46	8	2.5
(12) Problems arising from adjusting to a new curriculum and course of study.....	46	46	8	2.5
(13b) Conditions of employment other than salary, e.g., probationary tenure—knowing you are on trial.....	43	49	8	4
(23) Shyness and inferiority with respect to higher officers.....	41	52	7	5
(10) Problems of assignment to a teaching position out of field of preparation.....	41	57	2	6
(13) Conditions of employment other than salary, e.g., the sick leave policy.....	38	53	9	7
(21) Difficulties with colleagues of non-professional nature—personal antipathies.....	38	56	6	8
(11a) Assignment to teach classes composed of "problem" children.....	35	55	10	9
(30) Problem of personal insecurity, i.e., never feeling that you really "belonged".....	35	58	7	10
(23a) Shyness and inferiority with respect to other teaching personnel.....	34	54	12	11
(27) Problems involving love-life.....	31	61	8	12
(13a) Conditions of employment other than salary, e.g., retirement policy of the school.....	29	61	10	13
(26) Problems arising out of the dependency load.....	27	61	12	14
(11) Assignment to teach retarded classes.....	26	64	10	15
(27b) Problems involving love-life—dating.....	24	60	16	16
(31a) Denial of personal pleasures—by community repressions..	23	64	13	17
(28) Problems involving personal health, e.g., operation.....	22	70	8	18
(31) Denial of personal pleasures—by contractual repressions..	21	70	9	19
(27a) Problems involving love-life—marriage.....	20	68	12	20

* Where frequencies are identical in column headed by "Yes" but are different in remaining columns, rank is based upon the possibility of change in rank on basis of persons not checking item.

afforded the inductee during the induction process.

Based upon the experienced judgment of the teachers studied these twenty-five induction problems constitute the main barriers encountered by new teachers during their induction into a new school and community.

These problems are the main concern in later divisions of this investigation

where the attempt is made to establish the relative difficulty of the induction problem most frequently experienced by new teachers.

SUMMARY

This section has sought to ascertain the identity of the problems of induction actually experienced by the 136 teachers studied, based upon the check-sheet data. These data indicate several

general tendencies and tentative conclusions.

First, it is significant that more than 75 percent of the teachers included in this study agreed that the two most commonly experienced problems during their induction experience were (1) Learning administrative routines, reports, and procedures, and (2) Gaining an understanding of the school's system of evaluation. This finding achieves added significance in view of the fact that the problem ranked fifth in frequency of mention was (16), Gaining an understanding of the school's philosophy and objectives. It is clear that the administrators of our schools can render a real service to new teachers by providing them with helpful information and materials to enable them to gain an understanding of the school's philosophy and administrative procedures.

Second, from 65 to 71 percent of the teachers studied believed that certain conditions of work, namely, inadequate materials, building facilities, and unattractive surroundings, were problems in their induction. This is not unexpected in light of the scarcity of materials and stoppage in building caused by the war period. It is important, however, that the teaching profession itself, as well as the teacher training institutions and the employers of prospective and experienced teachers, recognize that new teachers are aware that inadequate materials, building facilities, and unattractive classroom surroundings are serious barriers to successful and satisfying induction into either the profession or a new teaching situation.

Third, a majority of the inductees included in this study agree that problems involving the establishment of desirable relationships with pupils, teaching personnel, and the principal are commonly encountered induction prob-

lems. These problems have long been recognized as being present in most teaching situations and it is reasonable to assume they have their greater incidence during the new teacher's induction into the position.

Fourth, induction problems related to inadequacy of salary in the particular community, instructional problems, problems related to community living, and securing pleasant living accommodations appear to occur during the induction of from 50 to 60 percent of the teachers studied. It is noteworthy to find that the two problems of inadequate salary and securing pleasant living accommodations are not more frequently encountered than is indicated by their rank positions. It should be pointed out, however, that during the time this study was being made salaries were being raised throughout the country, and this factor may have influenced the opinions of the teachers on this question.

INDUCTION PROBLEMS LESS FREQUENTLY ENCOUNTERED

Table V shows the problems experienced during their induction by less than 50 percent of the teachers included in this study. A study of Table V reveals that twelve of the forty-five problems, thirty-five main headings and ten sub-headings, were personally experienced during induction by from 41 to 47 percent of the teachers studied. These twelve problems were: (29), (14), (12), (13b), (23), (10), (13), (21), (30), (23a), and (27), ranking in frequency of mention from 1 to 12 in the order named. These problems pertain to assignment to teach out of area of major preparation, problem children classes, adjustment to administrative and teacher personnel, satisfactory social outlets in the community, and adjusting to a new curriculum and course of study.

The remaining eight problems, comprising the lowest frequency group, were identified by from 20 to 29 percent of the teachers studied. These problems, namely, (13a), (26), (11), (27b), (31a), (28), (31), and (27a), ranked from 13 to 20 in frequency of mention in the order named. Included in the group were problems pertaining to the retirement policy of the school, problems arising out of community and contractual repressions, teacher-pupil load, teaching retarded classes, and health. The last problem in this final group, number (27a), Problems involving love-life—marriage, was accorded the lowest frequency rank, 20, among the problems appraised, according to the judgment of the teachers included in this study.

SUMMARY

These data suggest several trends with respect to the teacher's personal, professional, and social living. Among these are the following:

1. That problems of a personal nature are not too generally encountered by new teachers during their induction.
2. That the problem of being assigned to teach undesirable classes, although far too general is not as frequently encountered as is the problem of being assigned to teach outside the major field of preparation.

3. That problems involving the teacher's love-life, dating, and marriage are experienced by relatively few teachers new to a school-community.
4. That difficulties growing out of community or contractual repressions are not widely experienced by new teachers.

These trends are especially significant in that they indicate an improvement in the respect for the teacher as a person as well as prestige and recognition of the teaching profession. It should be pointed out, however, that teachers are known to be somewhat reluctant to speak frankly with respect to personal problems and due allowance should be made for this factor. The recognition on the part of the public for the right of the teacher to live his life free from repressive and unnatural restrictions represents an important gain in the teaching profession.

The purpose in this part of the study has been to establish the identity of the induction problems most frequently experienced by new teachers during their induction into new teaching situations. The next step will be to establish the relative degrees of difficulty caused by these problems. This will be the purpose of a second article in a succeeding issue.

The first of these is the fact that the United States is a young nation. It has only been about 150 years since it was founded. This is a very short time in the history of the world. Yet in this short time, it has achieved many great things. It has become a world power, a leader in science and technology, and a model of democracy. This is due to many factors, but one of the most important is the fact that the United States has a strong sense of national identity. The people of the United States believe in the values of freedom, equality, and justice. They are willing to sacrifice for these values, and this has made the United States a great nation.

The second factor is the fact that the United States has a large and diverse population. This has allowed the United States to become a melting pot of different cultures and peoples. This diversity has made the United States a more interesting and dynamic nation. It has also allowed the United States to draw on the talents and skills of people from all over the world. This has made the United States a leader in many fields, including science, technology, and the arts.

The third factor is the fact that the United States has a strong military. This has allowed the United States to protect its interests and maintain its position as a world power. The United States has a large and powerful military, and it has used this military to defend itself and to help other nations. This has made the United States a more secure and stable nation.

The fourth factor is the fact that the United States has a strong economy. This has allowed the United States to become a world leader in many fields, including science, technology, and the arts. The United States has a large and powerful economy, and it has used this economy to help other nations. This has made the United States a more secure and stable nation.